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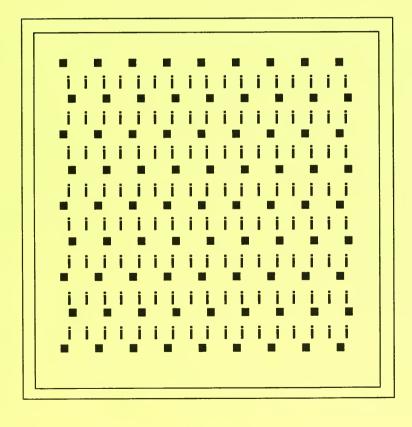
MAY 2 1988



VOLUME 11

FALL/WINTER 1987

NUMBER 3/4





IASSIST QUARTERLY

VOLUME 11 NUMBER 3/4

FALL/WINTER1987

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Colonial control information available for Inuit family research Disko Bay church and census records

The following three papers were presented at the IASSIST '87 conference in a plenary session entitled <u>Research trends</u>. The object of the session was to focus on the effect of new trends in research and data collection and the advance of technology on the use of data and data management techniques.

by Per Nielsen²
Danish Data Archives

1. Historical Sources from Greenland

Indigenous people under colonial rule were not left in peace! This was not because of any sincere interest in the ethnic peculiarities of the people, but rather because bureaucratic registration also served the purpose of ensuring that the path of development was in accordance with the stipulations of the colonizing government.

In the case of the Eskimo population in Greenland, the Government was in Copenhagen, where different authorities requested very detailed information on personnel resources, production, buildings, etc. In most cases, the information was required in order to evaluate economic development; however, even health conditions, births and deaths, including reasons for death, were reported. And in realm of the church, baptisms, confirmations, weddings, and burials were reported to Copenhagen.

Prior to 1774, the "colonial initiative" was mainly a private one, consisting of tradesmen on one hand, missionaries on the other. In 1774, the main administrative tasks were centralized within Royal Greenland Trade, leaving the church to take care of its own affairs. From 1782 to 1950. Greenland was administratively divided into two Inspectorate Regions North and South, each with its own Inspector; the division line was located between Egedesminde and Holsteinborg. Needless to say, there were modifications introduced to this system during the last decades of the 19th century; and many administrative changes took place during the first half of the 20th century. However, a detailed description of these is beyond the scope of this short introduction.3

¹Presented at the International Association for Social Science Information Service and Technology (IASSIST) Conference held in Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada, May 19-22, 1987

²I am indebted to Kirsten Elisabeth Caning for the articles she sent me, and to Jens Ludvig Wagner at the DDA for assistance and support when I tried to get an overview of the project.

³The above outline is based on Kirsten Elisabeth Caning, "Personalhistoriske kilder i grønlandske arkiver." <u>Personalhistorisk tidsskrift</u>, 1979.

During the period preceding 1951, all church matters as well as most issues concerning education were governed by the same administrative unit in Copenhagen. It is from this clerical administration that most of the information dealt with in this article originates.

2. The Church Records

Church records were maintained in the Greenland parishes during the first half of the 18th century; most of them have disappeared, and a couple of preserved manuscripts are incomplete in that they include information on the top strata of the Greenland population only. From the second half of the 18th century, there are preserved church records from Upernavik, Godhavn and Egedesminde. The lists of those baptized (Christening Lists) represent the majority of entries in the early years. The salvation of the souls of the heathens was one of the major preoccupations of missionaries; consequently, the number of baptisms performed was an indication of the efficiency of the missionaries.

The church records from the beginning of the 19th century, held in the Danish archives, are more complete, especially those from many of the parishes in the North Greenland Inspectorate. The records from the South Greenland Inspectorate are not so complete, in part due to the loss of a lot of these documents during their transportation to Denmark aboard the ship "Hans Hedtoft" (January 1959).4

The church records which have been preserved consist of four separate types of lists representing four different types of events:

Christening Lists, Confirmation Lists, Marriage Lists, and Burial Lists. Concommitantly, the data sets stored at the DDA (the "raw data") are separated, in their initial form, into 4 different files:

- DDA-0311: Population History of Greenland 1800-1930: Christening Lists
- DDA-0312: Population History of Greenland 1800-1930: Confirmation Lists
- DDA-0313: Population History of Greenland 1800-1930: Marriage Lists
- DDA-0314: Population History of Greenland 1800-1930: Burial Lists

3. The Census Records

The missionaries were also responsible for the registration of all people in their districts (including those who were not Christians, and who, consequently, never appeared in the Church Records). The censuses in Greenland contained the same information as those in Denmark: name, age, occupation, and position in household. In addition to these, the Greenland censuses contained information on race (Eskimo, mixed and European) as well as an indication of whether or not the person had been baptized.

At the National Archive in Copenhagen, there are census records from: 1834, 1840, 1845, 1850, 1860, 1870, 1901, and 1911. Those from the Umanak and Disko Bay Districts, for all censuses except the 1911 census (because of the 80-year access restriction to personal records at the National Archives), have been made computer-readable and are available as:

⁴In the "Danish Titanic" case, "Hans Hedtoft" collided with an iceberg on her maiden voyage to Greenland, January 30th, 1959. All 95 crew members and passengers died.

 DDA-0645: Population History of Greenland 1800-1930; Census Lists

3. Geographic Coverage and Time Period Included in the Datasets

In the initial definitive stages of the "Demographic History of Greenland, 1800–1930" research project, both geography and time periods had to be taken into account. The above outlined existence of nearly complete archival series of church records and census records in Archives situated in or near Copenhagen, has some bearing on the geographic regions and time periods to be covered.

Geographically, the North Greenland Inspectorate had the most complete records. Consequently, the rather isolated regions in northwest Greenland, the Disko Bay District and the Umanak District (isolated in terms of inand out-migration from/to the surrounding regions, so that few individuals "disappear" via migration) were selected; from north to south (or rather, "around the bay") in the Umanak and Disko Bay Districts thus defined, Umanak, Godhavn, Ritenbenk, Jakobshavn, Christianshåb, and Egedesminde are the larger township areas included in the project.

With respect to time period covered, the availability of records suggests that the registration should begin around the turn of the 18th century, i.e. around the year 1800. For reasons of restricted access (and, of course, as a means of reducing the resources required for the data collection process), the registration was stopped at the beginning of the 20th century.

4. The Data Collection Process

Coding was done from the original sources, or copies thereof by the principal investigator, Kirsten Caning, together with a student aide (see figure 1). The coding sheets were then sent out to have the information transformed to a computer-readable medium. The machine-readable data were deposited with the DDA, where Jens Ludvig Wagner (who was experienced in demographic data and family reconstitution methods from his work with several other historical projects) took over the transformation tasks as they were requested by Ms. Caning. During this process, the following rectangular files were generated:

- DDA-0311:17,248 Baptism entries, each with up to 53 variables
- DDA-0312: 10,037 Confirmation entries, each with up to 62 variables
- DDA-0313: 4,720 Wedding entries, each with up to 90 variables
- DDA-0314: 13,217 Burial entries, each with up to 84 variables
- DDA-0645: 23,953 Census entries, each with up to 37 variables

These five files form the basic "raw data" of the project. However, after this initial collection of raw data, a tremendous effort was devoted to data correction and family reconstitution. Correction involved, for example, the deletion of double entries (e.g. the baptism of the same child in two parishes in the Church Records, or

 $^{^{5}}$ [figures and tables are collected together at the end of the article. Ed. note]

⁶See Jens Ludvig Wagner, "Datamaterialer med komplekse strukturer", in <u>DDA-Nvt</u> 25:64-70, 1983.

enumeration of the same person in two households in the Census Records). Those with experience in family reconstitution projects know the amount of preparatory work to be done before one can produce a centralized file. Therefore, I shall go into some detail concerning the methodology applied in this particular family reconstitution project. How did we derive, from the above listed five raw data files within which all the events were sequentially numbered, the so-called "centralized file" containg the best possible reconstitution of families?

5. Family Reconstitution: Manual and/or Automatic Procedures

Within the discipline of historical demography, there has been quite a long tradition of two "schools", one advocating automatic (i.e. computer based) family reconstitution procedures, the other maintaining that a lot of human thinking is necessary in order to get as close to the ideal of a complete reconstitution as possible. In the case of the data from Greenland, a mixed automatic and manual process was used.

With the raw data (or basic files) as the point of departure, two tasks had to be completed: that of identifying the events (e.g. a baptism, confirmation, wedding, burial, or membership in a certain household in a specified census enumeration) as attributes, or descriptors, characterizing the "central persons" (or "actors") when the event took place, and that of establishing "pointers" among all the central persons based on their family relationships.

Who are the Central Persons (CPs) in this project? - In the event of a baptism or a confirmation, the baptized/confirmed person and his/her parents are the CPs; in the event of a

wedding, bride and groom as well as parents of both of the married persons are CPs; when the event is a burial, the buried person and his/her parents as well as a spouse and children are CPs. Finally, in census enumerations, each person listed in each census is a CP. By machine generation, the Basic Files were thus expanded into a "Theoretical Centralized File" with more than 200,000 "central person in one event"-combinations. We shall call these Central Person-Event records (CPE). A sequential number was allocated to each CPE.

The CPE-file was sorted on names; some auxilliary lists sorted on districts and other criteria were produced by Jens Wagner whenever Kirsten Caning needed and requested such lists during the work. The sorted CPE-file(s), written out as long paper listings, formed the basis for the next major state: the process of manually inserting Personal Identification Numbers (PIN), (see figure 2).

Even though the sorting based on names did help a lot, the task of numbering more than 20,000 individual persons (as it turned out later) on more than 200,000 CPE-records was a heavy consumer of both time and human memory! And now we may return to the question whether the machine or the manual reconstitution is "better". It goes without saying that the choice of method depends heavily on the nature and quality of the raw data; so we shall talk about advantages and disadvantages, (see figure 3).

Automatic family reconstitution has the advantage of being relatively quick and being well documented. However, in many cases a lot of persons are left "split" in two or more persons. For example, figures 1 and 2 (1901-census) compared to the extensive figure 3 (an excerpt from the CPE-file after all CPs have been numbered) clearly demonstrates a number of problems with machine reconstitution: Nikolaj Jens Andreas Lange was found under many different names, partly due

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to the fact that the first names may be written in any order (some of them may be missing), partly because of different spellings (some of which are not caught in the normalization process, e.g. Nik(olaj) vs. Nic(olaj)). Figures 2 and 3 show that Kirsten Caning preferred to work with "normalized names" in order to minimize the spelling problem. But even with that precaution, the decision was made to perform the reconstitution manually.

The reconstitution process was carried out by entering PIN-numbers on all relevant locations in the CPE-file. During that process, a number of errors were detected and corrected – this is probably one of the main advantages of manual reconstitution. After some iterations of PIN-numbering, the theoretical CPE-file was reduced from more than 200,000 records to approximately 131,000 CPE-records.

6. The Documentation Problem in Manual Family Reconstitution

Who "disappeared" from the theoretical CPE-file? Approximately 70,000 entries vanished from the "theoretical" to the "reduced" version of the CPE-file. The records of type "own baptism" were reduced from 17248 to 16312; "own confirmations" were reduced from 10037 to 9169; "own marriage" from 9442 to 8388; and "own burial" from 13217 to 11678. Because some census registrations had been erroneously omitted from the first data entry process, the number of census registrations increased from the original 23953 to 24076. (The first number is the size of file given in section 4 for Raw Data Files).

Theoretically, one might expect that every person involved in a baptism, confirmation, marriage, or burial would have two parents. However, these CPs have, in many instances,

not been identified in the source records. Therefore the number of CPE-records in which parents were registered in each of the four events was reduced from the "theoretical" numbers 34496, 20074, 18884 and 26434, to 31338, 13538, 4902 and 9181 respectively. Predictably, it was in the events in which the "main actors" were adults (marriages and burials) that the information on parents was most commonly missing.

There is a major difference between the theoretical expectation that there was a spouse for each person buried (i.e. 13217 spouses) to the actual 2328 cases in which a spouse was actually identified. This is due, to a great extent, to the fact that many burials were of children (high infant mortality rate), and also in part to the death of unmarried adults; also some of the missing spouses were due to lack of registration. Finally, theoretically, it was expected that there would be information on at least one child for each buried person (i.e. an expectancy of 13217 persons); however, it turned out that this information was available in the source records only in 56 cases.

Does this mean, now, that we have lost the information in those of the CPE-records that were not merely theoretical, but in which the information was not given in the source records? It does not!

If a person was buried who was married at the time s/he died without an indication thereof in the burial record, we have data about the marriage from a different source. Similarly, if one or both parents of a baptized person were not mentioned in the Baptism File, we still may know of them from other sources, e.g. from a relevant census. This leads us on to the "record linkage", which in this project was done in an ad hoc data system.

7. Finalization of the Family Reconstruction in a Data Base Environment

During 1984 and 1985, several MLD/ASTRID⁷ data bases were designed and tested on subsets of the data from the Greenland Project. Even though a number of these designs were acceptable from the substantive point of view, they had to be rejected because they would consume too much computer power when loaded with the full data base. ⁸

With further computations and tests, a data base design was finalized by the end of 19849 and implemented with all the data from the project. The basic design of the data base is that one part contains all PERSONs and another part contains all the EVENTs. Each person is identified by the PIN-number preceded by M (males) or K (females). There is no need for a lot of pointers because the searching is based on key fields in PERSONs and EVENTs respectively.

I shall not go into the technical details of the data base in this paper. However, I shall demonstrate the output from the data base using the two heads of household that we have followed in figures 1-3 above, (refer to figure 4).

As can be seen from figure 4, not much has been done to present the output in an easily understandable way; thus far, only people actively involved in the project have used the system, and they know what the encryptions mean. If the data base system were to be used by others outside the project, more text would have to clarify the output.

Using this data base, the principal investigator is presently finalizing the family reconstitution task. Also, special purpose functions have been designed for demonstration purposes; for example, it is quite easy to establish pointers to allows a user to move up and down along genealogical lines, drawing the complete pedigree of the person under analysis.

It should be noted here that several features that are specific to the Inuit culture are reflected in the data. People may be referred to their biological family, to an extended family or household, or to the particular house in which they lived. It was quite usual for the Eskimo to live in so called longhouses. Several households lived in the same longhouse during the winter (when censuses were taken); during the summer, they might move away from the house, living in tents or similar dwellings. The following year, the family might move to a different longhouse at the same or at a different location: the houses were not owned by anyone - or, rather, they were owned by whoever happened to be occupying them. This tradition of living together in longhouses included a social security aspect; the data show that this tradition was slowly abandoned in favour of nuclear family houses during the 19th century,10

With the huge number of cross-identifications in the data, it is possible to follow individuals or families (biological or extended) for generations. Alternately, it is possible to examine a single location, and to describe how life changed in that particular location over the

MLD/ASTRID is a data base language and system, defined by Jørgen Grosbøl at DDA, described in his manual: MLD Data Bases and the ASTRID Language. Odense: DDA 1981.
The basic design was described in Karsten Boye Rasmussen, "MLD/ASTRID database for Grønlands befolkningshistorie", Working Paper A460–KB. DDA 1984-07-31.

⁹Jens Wagner, "MLD/ASTRID database for Gmnlands befolkningshihistorie – design uden referencer", Working Paper A460–JW, DDA, 10. December 1984.

¹ºDescribed in Kirsten Caning, "Fra bofællesskaber til kærnefamilie", <u>Beretning fra</u> <u>Carlsberfondet</u>, København 1986.

years. The latter strategy was applied by the principal investigator in an article on Sermermiut – a small place with only two houses with 20 and 12 inhabitants respectively (3 households per house).¹¹

8. Access to the Datasets for Secondary Analysis

Despite the fact that the primary investigator has not yet finalized the troublesome reconstituition process, it will be possible for secondary analysts to have access to the data, with the consent of Kirsten Caning. All requests should be directed to the DDA.

Needless to say, it is not quite as simple to address a user requesting this type of data as it is to send out a survey file. The user must define a priori the subsets or the formats s/he can handle. Further, it is the nature of historical-demographic data of the type we have been discussing that their quality improves over the years; during analysis, new findings concerning data relationships can be added. Such changes are now reflected in the data base version of the data, but not in the Raw Data Files mentioned in section 4.

Consequently, disseminable versions of the data should be extracted from the data base according to the specifications of the individual user. With the data stored in a data base management system, it is possible to generate rectangular files that can be analyzed with standard statistical software. However, to get the full personal history description capabilities, a data base management system environment would be needed by the user.

¹¹Tinna Møbjerg and Kirsten Caning, "Sermermiut in the Middle of the Nineteenth Century", <u>Arctic Anthropology</u> vol. 23(1-2):177-198, 1986.

figure 1

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Figure 1: Xerox copy of one of the source materials, viz. the Census List from October 1901, with information from Saraqaq in Ritenbek. The upper household is that of Nikolaj Jens Andreas Lange, living with his wife and 4 unmarried children aged between 21 and 30. The lower household is an older son, Lars Jonas Lange, with his wife and 4 children.

The figure is reproduced from an illustration in Kirsten Elisabeth Caning, "Om den grønlandske belolknings historie", printed in Forskning i Grønland 1/82, p. 5.

figure 2

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Figure 2: The same persons as those listed in figure 1, now listed from the computer. To the left of the "normalized" names field, lots of numbers of identification appear, i.a. the PIN-number appearing in columns 7-12. Our head of household Nikolaj Jens Andreas Lange has PIN-code no. 12914 - in the Ritenbenk District (code 4 in col. 19), the 1901-census (code 28 in cols. 16-17) from which the information was taken. He has that number in all other datasets as well, which we shall see later.

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Figure 3

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excerpt covers the two heads of household that were listed in figures 1 and 2, i.e. PIN-nos. 12914, Figure 3 (pp. 10-14 lncl.): Excerpt from the CPE-file after the PIN-codes have been entered. The Nikolaj Jens Andreas Lange, and 12940, Lars Jonas Lange. Here is a short introduction to the two persons: 12914 Nikolaj Jens Andreas Lange: The first block of 3 lines of this figure concerns his confirmation code 2 in col. 17 of the first line); strangely enough, he seems never to have been baptized. The Dort(c) Lundblad, Mar(ia) Sara Bronlund, and Birt(e) Pern(ille) Bronluns - to whom he has earlier following 3 blocks (code 3 in col. 17) concern his 3 consecutive marriages, with Soffie) Hedv(ig) been shown to have been married in 1901.

his children (code 8 in col. 17), and burial of one spouse (code 9 in col. 17). Finally, Nikolaj Jens Andreas Lange is present in every one of the 8 census enumerations, reflected in blocks with codes confirmation records on 11 of the children (code 6 in col. 17). There have been burials of two of After the three marriage records follows his burial registration (4 in col. 17 of the first line). following blocks (code 5 in col. 17) contain information on the baptisms of 16 children, and 21-28 in cols. 16-17. 12940 Lars Jonas Lange: Following the same coding patterns, Lars Jonas Lauge is seen to have been baptized, confirmed and married (codes 1, 2, and 3 in col. 17). 5 children have been baptized and 5 children (code 7 in col. 17), and Lars Jonas Lange has appeared in 2 censuses (codes 27-28 in cols. confirmed (codes 5 and 6 in col. 17); as many as 7 events are registered with marriages of his

figure 4

Figure 4: The information in the PERSON archive on the same two heads of household as reflected in earlier figures. The person is identified by the PIN-code preceded by M (males) or K (females); the second line gives the parents, third (and forth if necessary) the children. Under the heading GIFT (= married) the spouses are identified. Finally, under the heading TRANSDATA there are references to all events in which the individual was considered a CP. The initial letters identifying events are: B for burials, D for baptisms, K for confirmations, S for censuses with the extended family as the unit, T for censuses with a biological family as the unit, and V for the weddings.

Canadian social trends: a new Statistics Canada social statistics publication

by D. Craig McKie, Ph.D.¹ Chief, Social Reporting & Editor, <u>Canadian</u> Social Trends

Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division Statistics Canada

In the last ten years at Statistics Canada, the governmental collector and keeper of the nation's storehouse of numerical information about itself, momentous changes have occurred in the ways data are collected, processed, analyzed and published. It is not recognizably the same organization I first joined in 1977. Since that time, the widespread importation of new methods and new technology have in turn been reflected in organizational changes. Accompanying these changes have been pressures to reduce costs and overall staff levels and to recover a larger part of the costs of operation from clients.

While the technical aspects of this change are perhaps better known (and we could refer to random digit dialing-based interviewing techniques, a microcomputer on every other desk, and very sophisticated analytic software and graphics hardware to match it), changes on the publishing side have also been considerable. But while the necessity for modernizing the dissemination of data has been well recognized (by, for instance the widespread acceptance and use of electronic bulletin board type data services and the Bureau's own service CANSIM, and by sales of data on floppy disks, user tapes, and other similar services), publishing has not received quite the same amount of attention. The Bureau, for instance, still publishes many strange and exotic publications such as: the Cereals and Oilseeds Review, Gas Utilities, The Dairy Review, and last but not least, Sawmills Fast of the Rockies.

However, the number of users of whatever origin who are ready to plow through table upon table to find a single figure – or to construct their own annual time series from 25 years of monthly pamphlets is limited. Further, many users have neither the time, the training, nor the inclination to do such work.

Those who decline to engage in such activities are legion. Some telephone me; undoubtedly some may telephone some of you. Indeed, at

¹Presented at the International Association for Social Science Information Service and Technology (IASSIST) Conference held in Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada on May 19–22. 1987

the recent meetings of the Population Association of America in Chicago, one eminent demographer, who shall remain unnamed, stated to one of my colleagues that it was easier to obtain Zambian data than to get it from Statistics Canada.

Such reactions are not uncommon. Foreign nationals, or the inexperienced, simply do not know where to begin. Other domestic users, although they know how to begin, lack the iron will necessary to persist in their quest. They tend to fall into several broad categories of persons. Three prominent types are:

- those who are interested in a subject but lack the knowledge of how to go about finding suitable data and who are intimidated by the traditional publication of official statistics [massive cryptic tables with lots of footnotes, runic symbols, and qualifications which seem meant to undermine any simple interpretation of the contents];
- 2. those who know what they want and where to find it but cannot afford the time to assemble the data nor interpret it [there are few who do not shudder at the task of sorting through 52 pages of tables, the numbering of which may change from year to year, over enough years to assemble a graph which can indicate the direction of change, perhaps standardized to some rate per population]:
- those who don't want data at all but rather a prose summary of a data set to use as evidence.

I think it was our belief when we started to think about the form of what turned out to be <u>CST</u>, in 1984, that most Canadians, to the extent that they seek to use Statistics Canada material, fall into one of these three categories or subsets of them. To reach such people with useful information, a new format would be

necessary. Our subsequent activities in search of such a format have been based on the premise that there is a significant demand from a wide range of governmental and non-governmental agencies for comprehensive and systematic information which identifies, describes, and analyzes social trends and conditions in Canada. This demand is expressed in a number of ways including requests to Statistics Canada for assistance, information, and ideas. These requests come from government agencies, members of parliament, community groups, and the press. Canadian Social Trends is one response to these requests.

There is much potential for information which illuminates the social conditions which are the objects of policies, programmes, and public concern. After some trial and error, which involved the preparation of a similar annual format (it was discarded because of the inevitable loss of timeliness in an annual publishing cycle), the final decision was to go with a quarterly format which at least superficially looks like a news magazine - a format familiar to almost everyone in western countries and one users expectations of which are in a sense built-in. One expects succinct, highly graphical treatment of issues pertinent to the reader (they are not arcane) interspersed with advertising (information).

The start of publication of <u>Canadian Social</u> <u>Trends</u> is one notable aspect of the latter type of change.

The New Publication

In terms of the number of its publications (in excess of 600) Statistics Canada could well be the largest publisher, public or private, in Canada. However, its publications have by tradition been dry and heavily given to technical

detail. In contrast, <u>Canadian Social Trends</u> is an entirely new type of publishing endeavour for Statistics Canada.

The purpose of <u>CST</u> is to report on changing social conditions in Canada in order to provide government and corporate policy-makers and planners, marketers, and others with a basis for decision-making. It provides recent and historical evidence for the direction and magnitude of change of important social trends. Its intent is to describe and make evident a trend's inter-relation with policy concerns, and promote an understanding of social conditions (and economic developments where a direct social outcome is established).

The publication has five distinct objectives:

- to provide decision-makers in government, industry, and the social service sector with an awareness of social and socio-economic trends and information relevant to their environment in an appealing format. Improving accessibility to Statistics Canada information and information products is the prime objective;
- to provide users with a single, authoritative source for social trend description and analysis in an easily accessible and readable form. The intention is to integrate sets of data and make the connections between isolated findings;
- to provice committed information users with information about Statistics Canada's data holdings, information products, and services;
- 4. to provide Statistics Canada with a flagship with which to raise public awareness of its corporate character, value, and contributions to the public interest. The publication supports the data collection process by showing a public return of information to respondents - this return helps justify impositions on respondents' time;

5. to provide a vehicle with which to publicize the existence of Statistics Canada information and data products and statistical services to get the greatest possible use from a considerable investment of public funds in data collection while at the same time earning revenues to help defray the costs.

Audiences foreseen or already realized for this publication are: policy-makers and planners, both governmental and corporate, social service agencies, educators engaged in teaching social or Canadian studies at the secondary or post-secondary level, libraries, the media, international information repositories, and market research concerns.

Subject matter is selected according to a loose formula. In each issue there should ideally be found one article on each of the following general topics: demography, labour force, and income. In addition, a rough rotation of issue selection exists with respect to institutional areas (e.g. culture, health, education, and justice); and with respect to target groups (i.e. women, the elderly, youth, native peoples, and the disabled).

New Presentation Styles

It is difficult in words to describe style. Therefore I will show you some before and after shots of the same data in the old and the new format. (see examples collected together at the end of this article. Ed. note).

Now entering its second year of publication, <u>CST</u> is intended to be the authoritative voice for Canadian social statistics as they are collected and disseminated by Statistics Canada. The quarterly publication attempts to place social statistical reporting on a much more accessible basis than was previously the case. It

carries analytical articles of varying lengths on important topics of social statistical reporting (such as the decline in fertility and the increase in lone parent families). Each edition of the report is approximately 44 magazine format pages long and features text written for the educated layman. With 25 - 30 graphics per issue (photographs and illustrative drawings), it is primarily intended to be used as the best source of Canadian social trends material for government policy makers, planners, and private sector marketing specialists in addition to students. There are no private sector publications which compete with CST. As a result, it has quickly become the obvious source for Canadian social statistical data and carries new analyses and data reporting in addition to publishing summary articles on previously released data. In addition, each edition carries a social indicators page and notices of the release of new Statistics Canada publications which might be of interest to readers.

What is really novel about this publication is that it is a clear departure from the usual 'multi-table and short descriptive text' format traditionally associated with governmental statistical publications. Early acceptance of the format has been much greater than initially expected: Canadian Social Trends already has the largest paid subscription of any Statistics Canada periodical publication and indications are that interest outside the country is high. perhaps reflecting the fact that for a foreign reader unfamiliar with Canadian social statistics. this publication is in most senses self-explanatory, carrying with the articles the definitions and data qualifications necessary for reuse without further reference to sources. A three hour audio-visual presentation is also available to clients for a fee when resources are available.

Underlying the publication is a time series database containing some thousands of series. At some point in the future, clients will be able to purchase collections of these series, on

diskette in Lotus format, thus greatly shortening their data collection and processing times and reducing the cost of data acquisition accordingly.

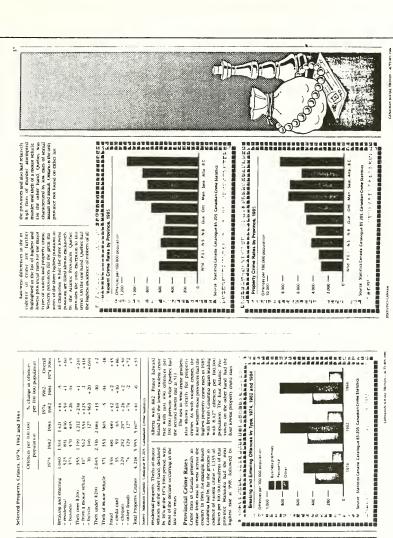
The publication is put together by a full time staff of six people, including myself, with the assistance of a professional design firm and students from Canadian university co-operative programmes. At any given time, we have from two to four university students on work term assignments. They receive course credit for working for the project. In addition, we employ some contract writers and editors, although the bulk of the editorial content is generated from within Statistics Canada.

The publication is issued in both official languages. Page design is by a contract design firm.

Examples

I will use the remaining time available to me to show you some concrete examples of what we mean by social trends. (see examples collected together at the end of this article. Ed. note). They may be thought of as significant changes of direction in the measures of significant social institutional variables.

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Source. Canadian Social Trends, Autumn 1981

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Mortgage Rats, 1969-1986

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MORTGAGE RATES AND by Adea Bertjawaky

A house in 1986 were pleased with the real enate market. Morringae rates were lower than they had been for eight years. As a result, housing sales were brish, and new house in 1986 were pleased

surprising given the long term rela

tionahip between morigage rates house sales and construction activi-People buy, sell and build houses Rt a livelier pace whenever mongage rates decline And the opposite

construction flourished. This is not

decline housing takes increase generally occurs whenever monprice of exacing bounes on the other hand, has generally not been af fected by fluctuations in morngage EARTERS ROUD The average pelling Mongage rates, however,

variables such as the rate at which new families are being formed and come tevels. It should also be noted not the only factor influencing the housing market Demographic market have considerable effect on housing demand, as do general economic conditions such as the incidence of unemployment and inmask considerable differences in the size of the potential home-buye that national housing market figures

regional and local bousing markets Mortgage Rates

last decade and a half have been relatively stable, ranging from 9% to however mongage rates have been recalared rapidly to a peak of 21 % in cent which saw them fall back to Morigage rains' in Canada over the iv. 1979 morigage rates were characterized by large and fairly part of 1979 murigage rates rates began a not always smooth descharacterized by two quite during phases Herween lune, 1969 and lu 12% Throughout the 1980s early 1981 in the apring of 1982 evets similar to those of the 1970's

the recession period of 1981-82 morrgage rates excatated espedie while unit sales dropped in roughly with morigage rates reveals a "braiding" effect Generally speak In May, 1986, for example, the five vest rate had fallen below 11% The compartion of housing sales? as mortgage rates rue, housing sales caper off and when morngage Sales of Existing Houses

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Source: Bank of Canada Remen

began to rise. The decline in month was followed by a 50% increase in the same proportion Later as more page rates dropped off unit sales the number of housing unit sales be tween 1983 and 1983 The effect of mortgage rates dur ing these periods of very siee

> this effect was particularly sockeable during the 1980s. During

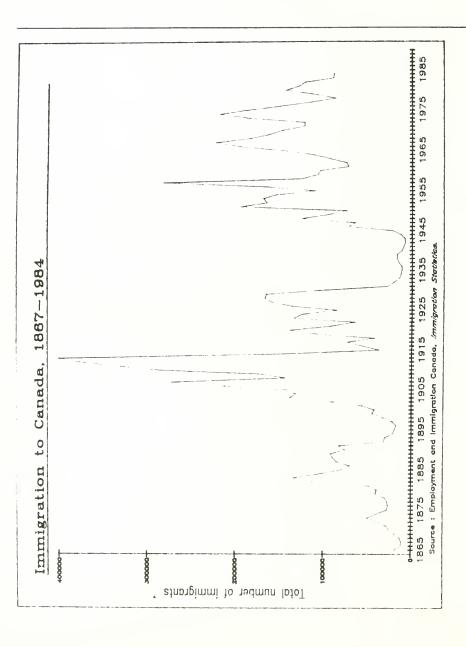


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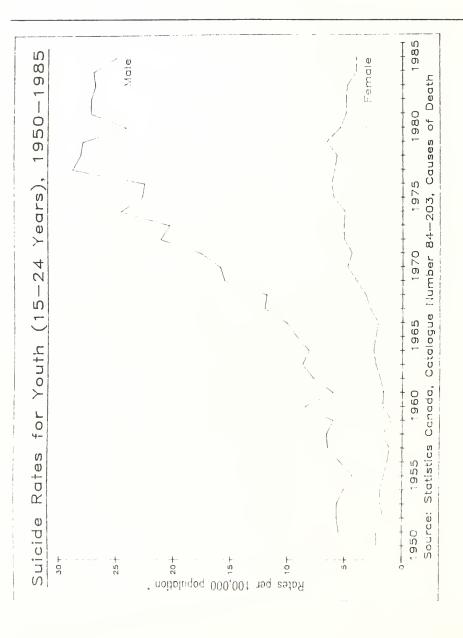
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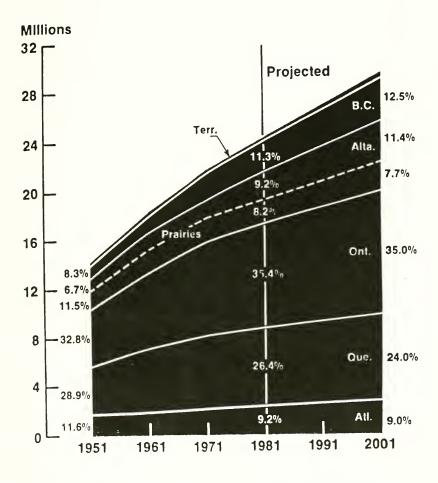
Unemployment Rates by Province

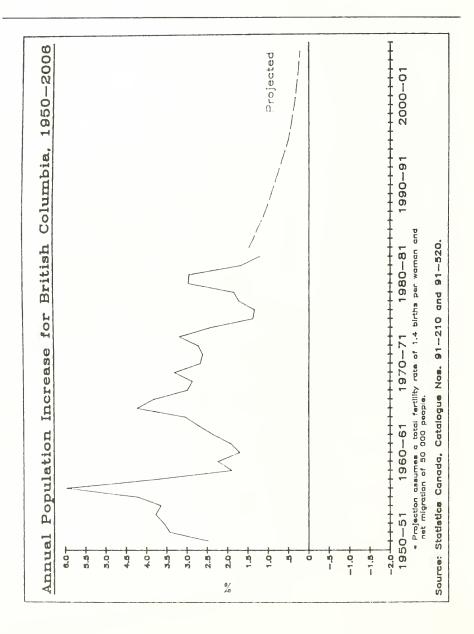
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Prince Edward Island	8.0	12.2	13.2	13.4
Nova Scotia	7.7	13.2	13.8	13.4
New Brunswick	8.6	14.8	15.2	14.4
Quebec	8.1	13.9	11.8	11.0
Ontario	6.3	10.4	8.0	7.0
Manitoba	4.5	4.6	8.1	7.7
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British Columbia	8.5	13.8	14.2	12.6
CANADA	6.9	11.9	10.5	9.6

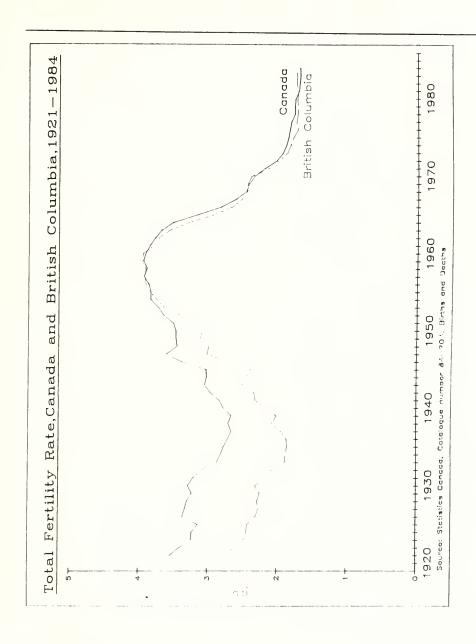
Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-529, Labour Force Annual Averages, and 71-001, The Labour Force, December 1986, Source :



Population Distribution by Regions

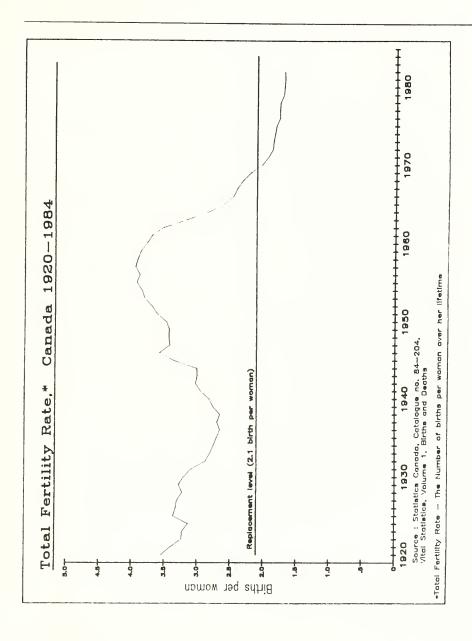


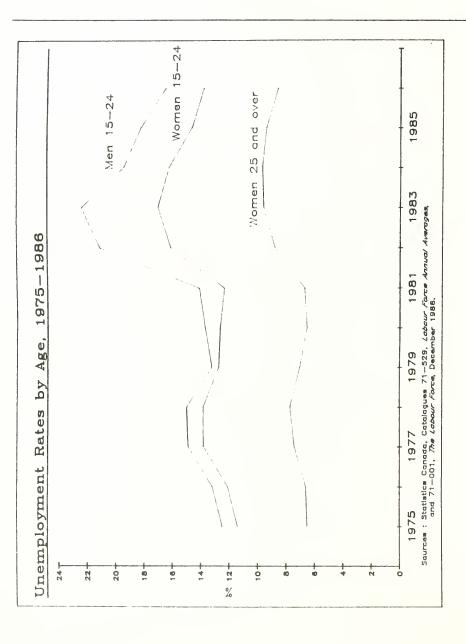


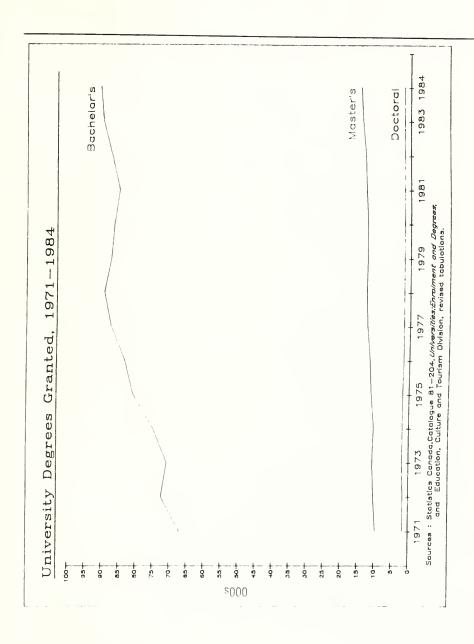


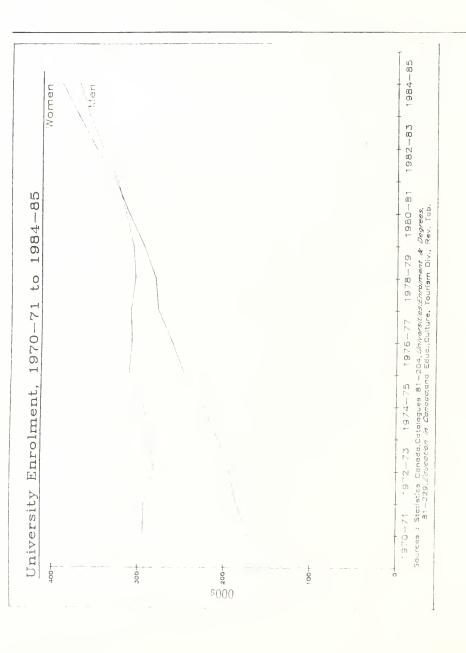
Indice synthetique de fecondite, Canade, provinces et territoires, 1982-1984 Total Fertility Rate, Canada, Provinces and Territories, 1982-1984

	1982	1983	1984
Canada	1.69	1.68	1.69
Newfaundland — Terre—Neuve	1.97#	1	1
Prince Edward Island — lie du Prince Edouard	1.93	1.89	1.89
Nova Scatia — Nouvelle Ecosse	1.67	1.66	1.63
New Brunswick – Nouveau-Brunswick	1.70	1.69	1.65
Quebec	1.52	1.47	1.46
Ontario	1.65	1.66	1.69
Manitoba	1.84	1.87	1.86
Saskatchewan	2.17	2.13	2.11
Alberta	1.96	1.96	1.92
British Columbia — Colambie—Britannique	1.74	1.73	1.76
Yukon	2.04	2.36	2.25
Northwest Territories — Territoires du Nord—Ouest	3.00	3.20	2.99
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Births to Unmarried Women

Child Care

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Private Education

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Acknowledgements

Cynthia Steers, Gordon Priest, Boriss Mazikins, Owen Adams, Doug Angus, Jim MacDonald, Michel Durand, Wendy Hansen, Howard Clifford, Anatole Romaniuk, Sandra Ramsbottom, John Silins, David Bray, Ian Macredie, André Labelle, Sylvie Mercier, Beryl Gorman, Lucie Lamadeleine, Ricarda Windthorst, Georgette Gaulin, Daniel Scott and Sylvie Blais

Cover Two Girls Resulting Wm. Brymner, watercolour on linen, 40½ X 29½ in , 1898, National Gallery of Canada, Ottawa

ISSN 0831 5698





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J W Coombs, J. Hagey, D B Petrie, G E. Priest, Review Committee E.T. Pryor, M. Rochon.

Acknowledgements Martin Blais, Catherine Bronson, Beryl Gorman, Lucie Lamadeleine, Myriam Laporte, Isabelle Lavoie, Louise Paveley, Cheryl Sarazin, Daniel Scott, Cathy

Shea, Tim Stringer

Canadian Social Trends (Catalogue 11, 008E) is published four times a year by Statistics Canada, Publication Sales Ottawa Ontario, Carada KTR OTO retiphone (0.1) 993-9078 (Opringh 1986 b) Statistic Carada all rights reserved. First Class postage paid a Ottawa Ontario. Carada 31950-RETION RATES 144 a year in Carada 310-060-where Single paid a 1050-8078 (1.1) 150-608-where, wend subscription in otters and address changes to statistics Canada. Publication Vales, Orrawa, Ontario. Canada, K.I.A. 076. Please supply both old and new addresses and allow six weeks for change. Correspondence may be addressed to the Editor, Canadian Social Trends, 11th Floor Jean Talon Building, Ottawa, Ontario, & LA 016, Canadian Social Trends is not responsible for unsolicited materials. Permission is grained by the copyright owner for libraries and others to photocopy any article herein, provided credit is given to Statistics Canada and Canadian Social Trends. Requests for special permissions or bulk orders should be addressed to the nearest Regional Office

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Review Committee J.W. Coombs, J. Hagey, D.B. Petrie,

G E Priest, E.T. Pryor, M Rochon

Acknowledgements Sylvie Blais, Lucie Lamadeleine, Elizabeth Marcella, Kate McGregor, Suzanne Méthot, Louise Ouinn, Sandra Ramsbottom, Daniel Scott, Cathy Shea, Tim Stringer

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The New OED project at Waterloo: old wine in new bottles

by D. W. Russell¹ Waterloo Centre for the New OED University of Waterloo In mid-1983, three years before the fourth and final volume of the Supplement to the Oxford English Dictionary (OED) appeared in conventional print form, Oxford University Press (OUP) had announced its intention of computerizing the OED. By the end of 1983 the decision had been made that Oxford University Press would manage this large undertaking itself, and would enter into a series of contracts/agreements with other parties (such as the University of Waterloo, IBM UK, International Computaprint Corporation (ICC) of Fort Washington, Pennsylvania, among others) to carry out work on various aspects of the computerization.

From a long-term perspective, the Project's objective is to transform both the original 12 volumes of the OED and the 4-volume Supplement into an electronic database; the work to be done in arriving at this objective has been broken down into several discrete phases: first the initial sixteen volumes had to be entered into the computer, preserving the original text organization and presentation. This meant the tagging of structural and typographical elements in the dictionary as the data were keyed and transfered onto magnetic tape. One of the aims of this phase is to produce a printed version of the dictionary, integrating the Supplement material with the body of the OED, and incorporating about 4000 new entries into this merged edition. This version will be printed in the spring of 1989, in a projected 22 volumes at a price of about £1,500. The next major phase involves the design of a database structure for the machine-readable data, so that alternative structures can be presented, and interactive querying will be possible. It is at this point that the New OED comes into being, leading to expanded, updated, and revised versions of the dictionary that will allow several modes of data access, ranging from direct, online access, to the conventional printed version, and special, printed subsets of the dictionary. As can be seen, the possibilities are many, and the prospects for

¹Presented at the International Association for Social Science Information Service and Technology (IASSIST) Conference held in Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada on May 19–22, 1987

lexicographical work seem to expand almost infinitely.

The magnitude of the proposed task can be appreciated when one considers the size of the current source data, the sixteen volumes of OED and Supplement: there are over 21,000 pages of three-column print, with a total of about 500 million characters including punctuation and spacing. This breaks down to about 306,000 main entries, 163,000 subordinate entries, with over 2,350,000 illustrative quotations, and almost half a million cross references. In addition to the sheer size of the dictionary, the material has, as anyone who has ever used the OED knows, an extremely complex structure, by which explicit and implicit information is conveyed to the reader through both the layout and the typography of the text. At the simplest level, each entry usually includes a headword lemma, a pronunciation key, a grammatical category label, a list of variant forms given by century, an etymological section, a series of sense definitions, each with a quotation bank; there is usually one quotation per century, with date, author, source and bibliographic reference. This structure is made more complex by words or forms that do not fit easily into the usual categories, and by the inconsistencies in method inevitable in a project that spanned many years and several generations of lexicographers.

Still, the capture of the dictionary material, which had to be done by manual keying of the text, since it was too complex for optical scanners, has been done, and done surprisingly successfully over a period of 18 months, ending in June 1986. The error rate, as noted by human proof readers hired by Oxford, is seven or fewer errors per 10,000 keystrokes. Working from enlarged copies of *OED* text, the key entry operators entered tags to identify all the typographical elements, as well as some of the structural elements of the source text. One of the chief aims at this stage, was, after all, to be able to produce a new, typeset edition in 1989.

But, since even this seemingly routine task becomes more complex when one is dealing with as much material as is found in the OED and Supplement, a further refinement was introduced at this point in the process. Computer science researchers at Waterloo developed a parser which automatically tagged structural elements not tagged during keying, and which converted the ICC tags into SGML codes.2 This parsing permitted the automatic validation of the earlier tagging. The conversion to SGML codes was needed to permit a greater degree of automatic integration by computer of the OED and Supplement, as well as to facilitate the lexicographical team's interactive integration of the two source texts.

Meanwhile, at the University of Waterloo, research on database design for the New OED has begun, with the support of a 1.3 million dollar grant from NSERC. The Project has the mandate to design a database for the New OED, and to develop software utilities for database access, maintenance and update. This work is to be carried out over three years by a team of seven full-time researchers, directed by a team of computer science faculty researchers, led by Gaston Gonnet and Frank Tompa. To date, two prototype software tools have been produced, to allow interactive access to, and sophisticated querying of, the database. These tools are named Goedel and Pat. Although it is not within my competence to describe any of the technical specifics of these tools, I would like to offer some examples of the results currently possible, drawing mainly from my own research interests in the OED, namely the identification and study of the Anglo-Norman elements which were adopted by the English language in the medieval period.

²See Rick Kazman, Structuring the text of the Oxford English Dictionary through finite state transduction, (M. Math. thesis) University of Waterloo, 1985.

When the first tapes of the *OED* became available at Waterloo in 1985, it was theoretically possible to begin searching the dictionary interactively. In order to find all words labelled as Anglo-French or Law French, I needed simply to ask the computer to list occurrences of the relevant strings, "AF", "ONF", "Law Fr.", etc. At the time the data were mounted in a series of files, which meant the queries had to be repeated for each file. The results were not easy to read, and although one could scroll back or forward to identify the headword, in the end it proved easier to use the printed dictionary to locate the relevant entry.

After the creation of Goedel in 1986, a whole new range of possibilities made my querving of the data easier. I could now ask for the extraction of material according to structural categories in the dictionary entries, and according to specific strings within each category. I decided to limit my extraction to listing the headword lemma, the material within the etymological section, and the dates of the illustrative quotations, for all entries which could be considered to be derived from Anglo-Norman sources. Within the structure of the OED, Anglo-Norman material is identified in various fashions in the etymology section: it may be labelled as Anglo-French, it may be labelled as Old French (or Old Norman French or Old Law French), or it may be found to be labelled as French but with quotation dates preceding 1500. The results of my queries using Goedel could be printed in a formatted form which is eminently readable, and could be carried away for use elsewhere, freeing the researcher from being tied to a computer terminal. With the extraction power and flexibility of Goedel, the humanist researcher is faced with the new challenge of creating more sophisticated queries, based on previously unexamined possibilities, and building on the results of his or her ongoing interactive research.

The second extraction tool, Pat, allows a rapid and effective querying of a different sort, based in part on pattern matching; with Pat, for example, I could extract all entries derived from AF or OF and which have supporting quotations from a particular author, such as Chaucer or Gower. Or, to give another example, a researcher looking for infantine language was able to search the dictionary for all words whose sense definition included specific key words, such as "little" followed by "boy" or "girl" or "child" within a specified number of characters. Increasing familiarity with the results of these searches led to more sophisticated querving of the database, and raised technical problems which were addressed by the data structuring group working on the Project. In a similar way, Pat was used by a researcher interested in the source and frequency of quotations. It is possible to extract all quotations from a particular author, such as Fanny Burney, and further, to extract only quotations from Burney from a specified work, such as Cecilia.

These short examples, from among the preliminary group of research projects underway at the Waterloo Centre, serve to emphasize the futuristic nature of the Project; it is difficult to design a database for uses which may arise in the future, but which have not vet been imagined by humanist researchers. In an attempt to come to grips with this problem, OUP and the University of Waterloo conducted a user survey, to find out how individuals use the OED, to determine the principal facilities needed for the New OED, and to provoke considered responses about applications for the electronic version of the dictionary. Over 1,100 individuals were contacted, of whom 60% were from the UK and Europe, 40% from North America. The sample included both academic and non-academic users, with an emphasis on sophisticated users. The results have not yet been completely analyzed, but preliminary results give a broad outline of what users would like to see in the New OED. Basically, most

users want everything currently in the OED, in a fashion that is simple to use, quick to give results, and cheap to access. Ideally the data will be available publicly through an online data service, and privately via some disk format. The software must be user friendly, allowing quick access, both to a skeleton summary of each entry, and to a complete entry or selected details of an entry. The electronic version must not be prohibitively expensive, and yet be amenable to continuous updating and revision. And finally, the New OED should continue to be published in printed form. The survey results also suggest future applications, many of which will require revision of the OED: these include semantic field searches, frequency ratings by date or language of origin, the use of the OED as a thesaurus, and so on. One of the suggested applications, requiring the ability to search phonetics elements, will be made much easier by the decision to replace Murray's phonetic transcriptions with transcriptions based on the symbols used by the International Phonetic Association. This revision is to be incorporated in the 1989 print version of the New OED. Searching on these phonetic elements will only be possible, of course, in the electronic version of the New OED.

Just what the electronic form of the New OED will be has not yet been decided. There are plans to market an exploratory electronic issue of the old OED, without the Supplement, and without revisions, on CD-ROM in late 1987, with the aim of validating some of the results of the user survey, and generating feed-back for the database design currently in progress for the New OED. The database created to produce the print version of the New OED in 1989 is not now in a form which OUP would offer to outside users, but the Project does expect to market an electronic version of the 1989 and later editions of the New OED. The undertaking does present a number of technical and legal problems, the solutions to which will determine the final end product. And the planned revision and enhancement of the New

OED after 1989 will certainly carry the Project well into the twenty-first century. Judging from the unforeseen shifts and changes in plan which plagued James Murray and the other editors involved in the creation of the OED from 1879 to 1933, it is perhaps unwise to promise completion of the New OED Project by any given date. But there is room for cautious optimism. Such is the position taken by Tim Benbow, OUP's Director of the New OED Project, in his Status Report given at our second annual conference at Waterloo in November 1986. He said:³

"At the moment the project is running on schedule and on budget. We are not, however, complacent. Recurrent nightmares — one, in which as a juggler one is constrained to keep an increasing number of dictionary volumes of monstrous size in the air under pain of lexicution, alternating with a Sisyphean vision of ordering acres of dictionary slips only to have them taken by the wind as the last is about to be positioned — see to that!"

It is, no doubt, significant that Tim Benbow's nightmares do not yet reflect the presence of any textual database monsters.

³Tim Benbow, "Status Report on the *New OED* Project." Paper given at "Advances in Lexicology", Second Annual Conference of the UW Centre for the *New Oxford English Dictionary*, Waterloo, Nov. 9–11, 1986.

The sampling bias in random digit dialing

by A. Dianne Schmidley¹ Bell Atlantic Corporation All research is based on information from data collection efforts, whether the data result from the use of qualitative approaches, such as, content analysis, focus group sessions, or in-depth interviewing by psychologists, social workers or ethnographers, or from methods which produce data more amenable to quantitative analyses, such as, sample surveys and censuses (technically, a census is a 100% sample survey). A study2, conducted by Derek Phillips in the early 1970s, concerning the preference of sociologists for either quantitative or qualitative data collection approaches, revealed that more than 90 percent of the research conducted by those social scientists resulted from the analysis of data collected through the administration of interview schedules and/or questionnaires developed for use in a survey setting.

While sociologists are generally viewed as major collectors and users of the data resulting from surveys, they are not the only individuals interested in survey data. Pollsters, advertisers, program administrators and others have important uses for survey data. In fact, there are several broad categories of surveys including:

- 1. Attitude and public opinion polls,
- 2. Marketing research, including advertising and public relations surveys,
- Government surveys, especially those conducted for the purposes of developing legislation and administering and evaluating the effectiveness of programs,
- Special surveys conducted by researchers in university settings, usually the basis of primary research, and often government funded.
- 5. Other surveys, including internal

²Knowledge from What?

¹Presented at the International Association for Social Science Information Service and Technology (IASSIST) Conference held in Marina Del Rey, California on May 21–24, 1986

organizational surveys conducted to monitor attitudes and opinions.

Individuals with training in survey research methods direct many of these collection activities; however, many surveys, particularly those in the areas of marketing, public relations and opinion research, are conducted by individuals who have no formal training and are not aware of the many pitfalls of survey data. Once the ill-gotten information is translated into copy, it acquires a life of its own and the 'facts' become almost impossible to erase.

The use of data from a survey, for some purpose other than that for which it was collected, is common. For example, data from government surveys such as the Current Population Survey (CPS) are often used as the basis of marketing decisions, while data from a public opinion survey may influence the decisions of government policy makers.

The data from all five categories of surveys are utilized to support policy decisions affecting the expenditure of millions of dollars. Given the penchant of policy makers for basing decisions on data collected through the use of surveys, the need for a critical appraisal of each of the various stages of the survey process has evolved. Questionnaire/interviewer schedule design, sample selection, the administration of the survey process, the collection, tabulation and interpretation of the data, and testing of the reliability and validity of the information collected from the survey, compared to some benchmark, have all become subareas of the survey research process and are carefully scrutinized by trained social scientists.

The purpose of this paper is to shed additional light on the problem of selecting a representative sample of a population to be surveyed, using the procedure of simple random sampling.

When a sample is selected for a survey, attention must be given to the parameters of the universe the researcher hopes to study, and the method of eliciting information from that universe. In the case where the universe to be studied is a human population, there are a limited number of ways of operationally defining the universe and collecting information from the individuals comprising that universe. Each type of definition will affect the method of sample selection chosen. If the universe is operationally defined by street address records, the researcher can mail a questionnaire to each individual respondent. If telephone numbers constitute the universe, the researcher can telephone respondents and administer a questionnaire/interview schedule. With street address records, the researcher can meet with each respondent and conduct interviews face to face.

Generally, evaluations of each of these three approaches suggest that the higher the quality of the data collected (given proper development of the survey instrument), the greater is the expense of the survey. Mail-back questionnaires are the least expensive way in which to collect information and result in the poorest quality data with the lowest response rates, while in-person interviews are the most expensive way in which to collect the information, but produce better respondent cooperation. Given this set of circumstances most researchers employ the telephone as a means of collecting survey information, since it produces medium quality data at medium cost.

I mentioned earlier that when drawing a sample from a universe, the researcher operationalizes the sampling process by giving the members of the population s/he hopes to study concreteness in the form of a street address or a telephone number. Client/customer specific lists, collected by some agencies and firms, can be used when the researcher is interested in some subset of the population, and thereby has access to the specific names, telephone numbers and/or

address records of that group.

In most instances, however, the universe to be studied is only vaguely known. It may be comprised of all the individuals in some specific geographic location such as a trading area, county or school zone, or it may be a subset of the population, such as households with a certain income, or people of certain ages or ethnicity. At any rate, owing to a lack of specific information which could be used to contact and interview the individuals of interest in the population, the researcher more often uses a method of simple random sampling (SRS) of available street records or telephone numbers in order to delineate those units which will be sampled for the purpose of collecting information which can then be ascribed to the larger universe from which the sample was drawn.

The preference of survey researchers for telephone interviewing as a means of collecting information from respondents, coupled with the need to employ SRS in order to to identify the individuals to be surveyed within the universe in which they are located, has led recently to the development of a technique called 'Random Digit Dialing' (RDD).

RDD is believed by the naive to be a cure for drawing biased or non-representative samples from a universe. Misinformed advocates of RDD persist in believing that universal telephone service means that everyone has a telephone in their home. Secure in this belief, RDD practicioners promote the idea that by simply dialing the telephone in a random manner one can draw a random sample of the population of any given geographic area. Census data, which are used by experienced survey researchers, to design sampling frames and to calibrate survey results, indicate that universal telephone service does not mean that a telephone is found in every housing unit.

'Universal telephone service' is akin to the notion of 'full employment'. Full employment is defined by many as the situation in which about 5% of the population in the labor force, ages 16 through 64, and desiring employment, is unemployed. There are many persons between the ages of 16 and 64 who are not employed, and are not seeking employment; so full employment does not mean that 5% of this entire age group is unemployed. Similarly, universal telephone service does not mean that every housing unit contains telephone network access. There are a variety of reasons why a unit may be without access to the telephone network.

Attachment A to this paper gives the reader the sources utilized to determine something called telephone penetration. As can be seen in this attachment, there are basically four ways in which to measure telephone penetration: (1) using decennial census data, (2) using information from the CPS, (3) using GBF-DIME records, and (4) comparing household counts with counts of telephone access lines in given geographic areas.

Examples of the decennial census and CPS measures of telephone penetration of each of jurisdictions served by Bell Atlantic appear in Table 1, entitled, "Telephone Availability For Selected Areas: United States and Bell Atlantic Served States, 1980–1985". Figures 1 and 2 illustrate changes over time in telephone penetration in these geographic locations. Table 2 provides and indication of the type of statistic that can be developed using the Access Lines/Households ratio.

Several conclusions are possible from a careful examination of these various measures of telephone penetration:

 Data from different questions result in different statistics; i.e., the two censuses produced different results partly owing to question wording. These differences, iassist quarterly – 4

although found in a comparison of data from the 1970 and 1980 censuses, are illustrated in Table 1 in the 'unit' and 'availability' measures from the CPS,

- In addition to these differences, however, there are major differences between geographic locations (Figures 1 and 2) and,
- Differences have occurred over time (Table 2).
- 4. Differences result from the sample selection process. Table la reveals the differences in sample drawn from 1980 census data (Columns a and b); Table lb illustrates the range associated with each confidence interval computed for the various point estimates of penetration computed from CPS data.

Thus far, we have examined the penetration rate for the total number of households. When differences in types of households is taken into account, the variation in telephone penetration becomes even greater. The data in in Table 3 are from a 1980 Census Public Use Microdata Sample (PUMS). Table 3 contains a cross-tabulation of households by age of householder, household income, and telephone penetration for the state of Virginia. These data indicate that the presence of a telephone in the housing unit is not a random event, but rather that one is less likely to have a phone if one is poor and/or young.

Figure 3 illustrates the ratio of telephone access lines to households in the Bell Atlantic region from the early 1950s to the 1990s forecast period. A surprising event occurred in the late 1970s: the number of access lines increased to the point of outnumbering households. How can this be? The answer is quite simple, it's called multiple lines. In the state of New Jersey alone, more than 10% of households have at least two lines, and these households are not

poor and they are not young.

Can one draw a random sample, utilizing RDD? Yes, but a random sample of what? Certainly one will not draw a random sample of the households in a given geographic location. One will draw a random sample of telephone lines and, as we have seen, these are not evenly distributed across the population.

Does this matter? It depends on what one is trying to accomplish. A pollster, trying to predict an election, will want to examine age specific voting patterns and calibrate these to the universe of households with telephones, allowing for multiple lines, of course. Since the people who vote tend to be those with higher incomes, and voter participation increases with age, you will reach the group you wish to sample using telephone interviewing, although you may overstate the case, especially if you are tracking Republican candidates. (Table 4)

A marketing researcher, must be careful to calibrate the resulting data with census data, because the upscale population will be over-represented and other groups under-represented in the sample. An academic or government researcher, conducting a survey designed to produce information for the development of legislation or the operation of a social program, would need to calibrate the data with census or CPS data in order to ensure a representativeness.

In conclusion, it seems highly unlikely that telephone interviewing is a reasonable replacement for the Bureau of the Census traditional decennial census methods of data collection employing a housing address list, mailout questionnaires and enumerators. Given the problems associated with the universe of telephone access lines, if telephone interviewing becomes the mainstay of data collection for the U.S. Government, we will have lost one of the most important means we have of analysing the composition of our population. π

Attachment A

METHODS OF MEASURING TELEPHONE AVAILABILITY/PENETRATION (STATE LEVEL)

1.	Decennial Cer	nsus of Populatio	on and Housing	
	Questionnaire	2		
	1970 #HI I	s there a telepho an be called?	one on which peo	ple living in your quarters
		yes	what is the nu	mber?
			Phone numb	
		vo		
	1980 #H26 D	o you have a tel	ephone in your	living quarters?
		yes		no no
	Caveats: *	Timliness of the	data	
	•	Validity & Relia	bility issues	
11.	Current Popu	lation Survey		
	5		uly & November	g telephone availability of each year of a state based
	Caveats: •	Sampling error a	t state level	
	•	Coverage of non-	Bell Atlantic s	erved areas
111.	Geobased Fi	les/Dual Independ	ent Map Encoding	
	Matching te'	ephone customer	address records	with street address records
	<u>Caveats</u> : *	Non-urbanized ar	eas not covered	
	•	New housing not inferred from te	covered, althoug lephone company	n it can be records
17.	Residence Ac	ess Lines/Househ	old Estimates;	
	Use telephor household es	e company access timates prepared	line information by company demo	on in the numerator and grapher in the denominator
	<u>Caveats</u> : *	Second line devel of business offic second line		
	٥	Accuracy of house OK for internal p stand up in legal	purposes, may no	it.

Table 1-A

	TEL	EPHONE /	AVA1LA81	TELEPHONE AVAILABILITY FOR SLECTED AREAS:	SLECTED	AREAS:	UN1TED S	STATES AN	1138 0	UNITED STATES AND BELL ATLANTIC SERVED STATES, 1980-1985	SERVED S	TATES, 19	80-1985			
GEOGRAPHIC UNIT	1980 (A)	1980	NOV 1983 Unit Avail	1983 Av811.	Unit	MARCH 1984 Unit Avail.	Unit Avail.	1984	Unit	Unit Avail.	MARCH 1985 Unit Avail.	1985	JULY 1985 Unit Avail.		6 MONTH AV. Unit Avail. (1-6-85)	AV.
United States	92.9	92.9	91.4	93.7	91.8	93.6	91.6	93.8	91.4	93.6	91,8	93.7	91.8	93.9	91.6	93.7
Washington D.C. (C&P)	0.96	95.3	7.7	92.6	96.1	97.5	93.5	95.4	95.1	0.96	91.6	93.5	93.6	94.9	¥.1	95.5
Maryland (C&P of MD)	0.96	95.8	8.3	7.96	96.1	6.96	94.9	95.7	96.1	8.96	95.2	96.2	2.96	98.1	95.8	6.7
Virginia (C&P of VA)	95.6	91.8	93.1	94.7	93.2	95.1	93.0	95.6	92.9	9. %	92.8	94,5	90.4	92.3	95.6	94.5
West Virginia (CLP of WVA)	9.68	89.3	88.1	91.1	87.2	93.5	86.5	0.06	89.4	92.1	1.88	91.4	88.7	95.8	0.88	91.8
New Jersey (NJ Beli Tel.)	95.4	95.3	8.	95.1	93.5	95.0	96.0	6.96	94.5	6.3	95.1	5.96	95.4	5.58	94.8	96.1
Pennsylvania (Beil of PA)	0.96	95.9	95.1	97.1	94.4	0.98	95.1	96.4	95.1	97.2	¥.2	95.5	95.8	8.36	8. 9.	5: 96 :5
Oelaware (Diamond State)	95.2	95.1	95.0	9.96	95.4	96.3	93.7	95.1	93.7	95.8	9.96	97.4	¥.	96.1	94.8	96.2

1980(A); PHC 80-51-1 "Provisional Estimates of Social, Economic and Housing Characteristics", Table #1; 1980. (Official numbers files by AT&T with the DOJ, RE. The Modified Final Judgement, 1982.) 1980(B): STF3 - Final Numbers from the 1980 Census of Population & Housing. Sources:

Nov. 1983 - July 1985: Current Population Survey (CP5)

Table 1-B

Confidence Intervals Associated With Point Estimates Of Telephone Penetration for Bell Atlantic Served Jurisdictions

Prepared by D. Schmidley Demographic Studies x8638

(1) State	(2) Unit Measure Nov. 1985	(3) 	(4) 	(5) Range 68%	(6) Range 95+ %
ΩC	95.6	0.0149	1.42	94.2 - 97.0	92.8 - 98.4
DEL	93.4	0.0119	1.11	92.3 - 94.5	91.2 - 95.6
MU	95.3	0.0120	1.14	94.2 - 96.4	93.0 - 97.6
ИЭ	94.1	0.0093	0.88	93.2 - 95.0	92.3 - 95.9
PA	95.8	0.0059	0.57	95.2 - 96.4	94.7 - 96.9
VA	92.0	0.0156	1.44	90.6 - 93.4	89.1 - 94.9
wvA	86.1	0.0183	1.58	84.5 - 87.7	82.9 - 89.3

Formula from U.S. Bureau of Census

$$SE^{X} = X \cdot CA^{X}$$

X1 = 68% Confidence Interval

X2 = 95% Confidence Interval

 $SE_x = Standard error$

X = Penetration rate

 CV_{x} = Coefficient of variation

Table 1-C

This table is from the U.S. Bureau of the Census - Current Population Survey
FERCENTAGE OF HOUSEHOLDS WITH A TELEFHUNE BY HOUSEHOLDER S ASE

	ALL RA	ACES	WHI	TE	BLA	CF.	HISFANI Unit	c 6=
8 MONTH AVERAGE TOTAL HOUSEHULDS 16-24 YRS OLD 25-54 YRS OLD 55-59 YRS OLD 60-64 YRS OLD 65-69 YRS OLD 70-99 YRS OLD								
	95.5	96.6	96.1	97.2	89.1	91.3	86.8	90.1
NOVEMBER 80 TOTAL HOUSEHOLDS 16-24 YRS OLD 25-54 YRS OLD 55-59 YRS OLD 60-64 YRS OLD 65-69 YRS OLD 70-99 YRS OLD	76 6	93.7 64.1 93.7 96.1 96.4 96.2 96.5	93.1 80.2 93.4 96.1 96.4 96.5 96.0	95.0 86.2 95.2 97.0 97.2 97.0	78.8 49.9 78.7 86.3 89.5 87.2 90.1	83.9 68.2 83.3 88.5 90.7 89.0 92.3	80.7 64.9 81.8 89.3 87.3 90.7 85.5	84.6 71.9 85.6 89.3 90.2 90.7 89.1
MARCH 84 TOTAL HOUSEHOLDS 16-24 YRS OLD 25-54 YRS OLD 55-59 YRS OLD 60-64 YRS OLD 65-69 YRS OLD 70-99 YRS OLD	91.8 77.8 91.9 94.2 96.1 95.3	93.6 84.0 93.7 95.9 95.3 96.6	93.3 80.3 93.5 95.7 95.9 97.0 96.2	94.9 85.5 95.0 96.6 96.7 97.4	80.1 57.9 80.4 87.6 81.7 87.8	84.1 71.5 84.0 89.9 85.0 89.3 88.8	80.7 59.0 83.2 88.7 87.4 85.8 82.2	83.6 66.2 85.6 90.5 89.6 87.8 85.5
JULY 84 TOTAL HOUSEHOLDS 16-24 YRS OLD 25-54 YRS OLD 55-59 YRS OLD 60-64 YRS OLD 65-69 YRS OLD 70-99 YRS OLD	91.6 77.0 91.7 95.1 95.0 96.4 95.2	93.8 83.3 93.8 96.3 96.2 97.1 96.5	93.2 79.4 93.4 96.1 95.8 97.3 95.9	95.0 85.3 95.1 97.1 96.9 97.9	80.5 60.4 79.8 87.5 87.7 89.3	85.3 70.0 84.9 90.2 89.5 91.3 93.1	81.1 62.9 83.1 87.4 88.1 88.7	64.6 70.8 85.8 91.4 90.5 90.6 68.5
NOVEMBER 84 TOTAL HOUSEHOLDS 16-24 YRS OLD 25-54 YRS OLD 55-59 YRS OLD 60-64 YRS OLD 65-69 YRS OLD 70-99 YRS OLD	91.4 76.1 91.4 94.9 95.6 96.0	93.6 83.4 93.6 96.2 96.5 96.7	93.1 79.0 93.3 96.3 96.5 97.1 96.1	95.0 85.4 95.1 97.5 97.3 97.6	78.9 56.3 78.5 84.7 90.3 86.7	93.3 87.4 92.1	81.1 60.8 83.1 85.3 86.0 96.2 87.1	70.8 85.8 88.3 87.2 94.2
MARCH 85 TOTAL HOUSEHOLDS 16-24 YRS OLD 25-54 YRS OLD 55-59 YRS OLD	91.8 77.3 91.9 94.9	93.7 83.1 93.8 95.9	93.3 79.6 93.6 95.8	95.0 84.8 95.2 96.7	80.1 59.8 79.5 87.3	70.0 83.9	81.2 62.4 83.0 86.5	67.1 65.5

Table 2

% OF HOUSEHOLDS WITH TELEPHONES IN THE C&P SERVED AREA OF VIRGINIA

Pasidence

	Year (1)	Residence Access Lines-In Service (June 30) (2)	Bell Served Households (July 1) (3)	Telephone Penetration (2)/(3)X100 (4)
	1960	564,824	763,000	74.0
	1961	588,783	782,000	75.3
	1962	616,381	802,000	76.9
	1963	640,932	823,000	77.9
	1964	669,764	843,000	79.5
	1965	702,113	863,000	81.4
	1966	736,798	882,000	83.5
	1967	776,020	904,000	85.8
	1968	819,205	933,000	87.8
•	1969	860,518	975,000	88.3
	1970	896,711	1,011,000	88.7
	1971	933,814	1,027,000	90.9
	1972,	972,268	1,068,000	91.0
	1973	1,025,160	1,104,000	92.9
	1974	1,069,475	1,134,000	94.3
	1975	1,097,747	1,168,000	94.0
	1976	1,132,060	1,202,000	94.2
	1977	1,166,408	1,225,000	95.2
	1978	1,212,158	1,263,000	96.0
	1979	1,255,582	1,305,000	96.2
	1980	1,288,870	1,355,000 -	95.1
	1981	1,319,998	1,386,000	95.2
	1982	1,343,961	1,416,000	94.9

Source: (1) Data for Residence Access Lines-In-Service are taken from the Virginia monthly No.7 report, years 1960-80, and taken from the Virginia No. 2705 report for years 1981-82;

(2) Household data is based on household counts from the Decennial Census 1960, 1970 and 1980; and are based on the Current Population Survey and P-25 Population Reports in other years. These reports originate at the U.S. Bureau of the Census.

October 1983

Table 3

	Tel esnor	e Pemetra	tion by A	ge and In	come, Vir	ginia, 19	80					
	16 to 24	25 to 29	30 to 34	35 to 39	48 to 44	45 to 49	50 to	55 to 59	68 to 64	65 to 69	70 to 74	75 to 79
	HSHLDER	HSHLDER	HSHLDER	HSHLDER	HSHLDER	HSHLDER	HSHLDER	HSHLDER	HSHLDER	HSHLDER	HS-LDER	HSHLDER
housenold Income												
Less Than \$10.000	0.68	8.75	8.77	8.79	8.78	8.76	8.88	6.63	0.86	8.89	e. 92	8.9
618. 20 2 - 14999	8. 79	8.87	8.88	8.88	8.89	8.98	8.98	8.94	. 8.95	8.97	e. 97	8.9
15000 - 19999	e. 83	8.92	8.94	8.94	8.94	8.94	8.95	8.97	8.96	0.97	8.98	€.9
20000 - 24999	e . 92	8.96	e. 97	8.97	8.96	6. 97	8.96	8.98	e. 98	8.97	e. 99	8.9
125808 - 29999	e. 95	0. 98	€. 98	8.99	8.98	8.99	8.97	8.99	8.99	8.98	8.99	8.9
38888 - 34999	0.91	8.98	8.98	8.99	8.99	€ 99	e. 99	8.99	8.99	8.98	8.99	8.9
35000 - 39999	1.00	0.98	€. 98	1.00	6.98	8. 99	8.99	8.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	8.9
148888 - 44999	8.94	0.97	1.00	8.99	1.00	1.00	8.99	8.98	8.99	1.00	1.80	1.8
H5000 - 49999	e. 95	0.99	8. 99	8.99	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.88	8.98	1.80	6.97	1.8
158888 or More	e. 98	6. 98	1.00	8.99	8.99	0.99	8.99	1.00	8.99	8.98	e. 99	8.9
[otal	8.78	8.89	0.92	8.94	8.94	6.94	8, 94	8. 95	8.94	8.94	8.93	8.93

Thuse were data too generated from the 1980 Public Use Microdata Sample by the Pennsylvania State Data Center, at the request of A.D. Schmidley, Bell Atlantic

Table 4

TELEPHONE PENETRATION BY AGE OF HOUSEHOLDER (%) (1980 CENSUS)

AGE_	RATE	AGE	RATE
18-24	83.8	50-54	96.0
25-29	92.0	55-59	96.2
30-34	94.5	60-64	96.2
35 - 39	95.3	65-69	96.0
40-44	95.5	70-74	96.2
45-49	95.8	75+	95.6

Thus with The State was generated from the Public Use Microdata Samples PUMS This data was generated from the Public Use Microdata Samples PUMS for the Bell Atlantic served jurisdictions of Washington, D.C., Delaware, Maryland, New Jersy, Pennsylvania, Virginia and West Virginia, combined.

Figure 1

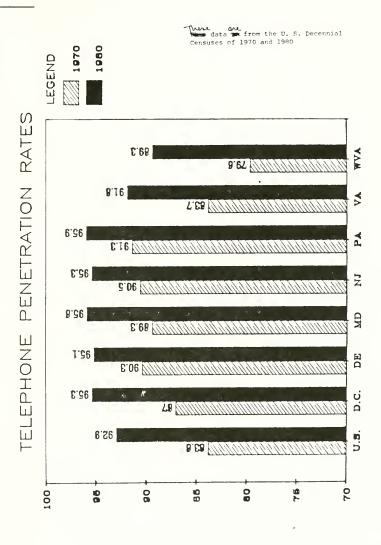
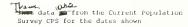


Figure 2







PENETRATION RATES (IN PERCENT)

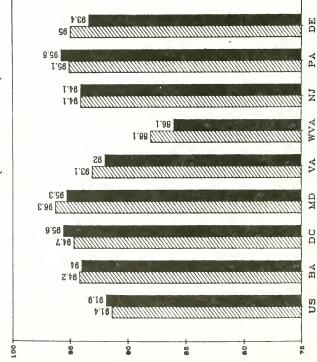
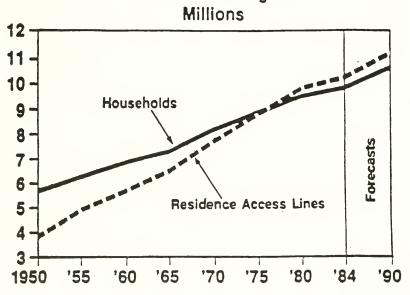


Figure 2

Residence Access Lines vs. Households Bell Atlantic Region



Evaluation criteria for the selection of computer mapping systems

by Marci L. Belcher¹ Marketing Manager MPSI Systems, Inc. 650 California Street, 31st Floor San Francisco, CA 94108 (415) 434–3222

Significant differences exist between the computer mapping products available in today's market. The way in which data are managed and manipulated by a system, in which information is represented in the mapped end product, the resources required for use, and the level of service provided by the vendor, are all important criteria that distinguish one product from another. Ultimately, the computer-mapping system selected should satisfy the application needs and environment of an organization. However, identifying the decision-making criteria to use in the selection process can be difficult unless one is aware of features available across products, and understands how these translate into potential benefits or problems.

Computer mapping systems use data as raw material in order to present relationships in a visual, geographic form. Therefore, a mapping system designed to truly support market analysis should be capable of organizing and managing all the information required for decision-making. One of the first issues to address in selecting a mapping product then is whether a mainframe computer or microcomputer-based system is required.

Centralized organizations with large varied data files on customers, demographics, lifestyle profiles, competitive informaton, consumption patterns, performance, etc., should consider a mainframe based product. Mainframe based systems are designed to process large data files efficiently, execute tasks quickly, and perform more complex functions. The cost of mainframe based products are higher than micro based. However, most of these systems help organizations optimize their investment in data by bringing the information to multiple users for different applications. Mainframe computers also tend to provide more powerful analytical capabilities, increasing the utility of maps in complex problem-solving.

¹Presented at the IASSIST 86 Annual Conference and Workshops, May 23, 1986

Decentralized or smaller organizations may find that microcomputer based mapping systems offer some of the capabilities of mainframe packages at a lower cost. Each micro workstation is an autonomous unit in which the data base may be designed and enhanced on an individual basis. Packages that interface easily with spreadsheet or reporting programs allow users to build a data base for mapping that includes information from a variety of sources. The greatest issue related to selection of a micro based system is the limit to the amount of data that can be stored and used at one time. New laser disk storage has provided users with access to a large volume of vendor supplied data. However, these data cannot be integrated with other information so that relationships, for example, between a company's retail performance and the corresponding demographic profile of that sales area, can be viewed on the same map.

Mapping systems index data to geographic units. Products differ greatly, however, in the number of geographic types to which information may be linked and, therefore, the types of data which may be represented in maps. All mapping systems display information through areas such as census tracts or postal zones. Mapping systems that also index data to locations and networks provide users with a higher level of analytical and interpretive capability. A retail location's performance, product mix or pricing may be thematically represented at different outlets. Traffic counts, type of roadway or directional information may be shown by varied transportation networks. A system that represents information linked to two or three geographic layers in the same map allows users to evaluate performance at a retail outlet in the context of the underlying market demand, the success and spatial location of competitors, and the level of traffic flow near the facility.

The structure of a system's data base can limit the flexibility the which the information may be used. In systems with parallel or hierarchical structures, information requests or queries must conform to the way in which data are organized in the data base. With a relational structure, any data item, be it a map element or an attribute in a related table, serves as an entry point or "front door" to the entire data base. Every attribute related to an individual geographic unit is also linked to all others. As a result, questions may be based on decision criteria or rules, in a way that replicates the human thought process.

The benefit of a relational data base structure is that it may be possible, if the software product is appropriately designed, to query the data base using multiple criteria related to the attributes of geographic areas. For example, the user may want to see only census tracts that have median home values greater than \$100,000 in which he has less than a 15% customer penetration level. A solution set of only the units meeting these criteria is formed.

These units may be further color segmented by another variable such as percentage of population between the ages of 20 and 34 years of age. Geographic units that meet a first-order set of criteria are first identified. These units may then be automatically segmented by variables that support more concrete decision-making. This type of system performs the work that multiple overlays of single variable maps ultimately achieve, but with greater efficiency and speed.

A major problem in data analysis has been the inability to integrate data that did not correspond to common units of geography. Often data important for planning are excluded because they are not comparable to other information in a common framework. This problem is solved with a computer mapping system that integrates data through its inherent common element – geography. Disparate geographic units are merged through an overlay process in the system, producing solutions to queries that are made up of the unique

geographic segments that meet all imposed criteria. Resulting geographic units may then transcend standard geography and consist of the intersections of units such as zip codes and census tracts.

Map overlay eliminates the need to continually geocode data to a consistent geographic unit. Customer information linked to zip codes may be analyzed directly with demographic information based on census tracts. In addition, if the overlay process includes two or three types of geography (areas, networks, locations), relationships between information based on disparate geographic types may be studied. For example, only retail locations with poor revenues that are also in areas with high potential demand for the products or services offered could be mapped. The time consumed in map interpretation is greatly reduced because a key problem or situation is directly identified through the query. In maps with every area and location represented, a labor intensive and often non-methodical search process must be conducted to identify relevant areas.

Often data are not stored in the form most useful for analysis. Some products feature the ability to perform mathematical operations using attribute items from the data base in any valid arithmetic expression. New data items formed may be used immediately in a query without making permanent modifications to the data base. For example, raw counts of quarterly sales performance can be changed to percent growth. Demand estimates could be developed by applying an equation such as (target population X percent expected conversion X average dollar sale).

As an aid in selecting meaningful data categories for segmentation, some systems display the distribution and range of values for each variable. Products may also automatically create categories with even counts of data, or let users select breakpoints, and automatically didplay the resulting histogram. Histogram

displays may represent the distribution of a variable on an individual or cumulative basis by the number of geographic units or by the size of the area in each category.

Representing raw counts or even percentages of data in maps often leads to the misinterpretation of information. Systems that perform density calculations help users understand that even though a large zip code region has a large population, that population may be much less concentrated than in a small region with a smaller number of residents. Through dot-density mapping, the concentration of data may be viewed on a macro-level.

The ability of a system to zoom-in and increase the resolution of map elements before plotting is important in applications which include the study of locations or street networks that may reside in close proximity. Retail bank branches are often located on the four corners of one intersection. Displaying all bank offices in one county would mean that many locations would be plotted on top of one another. The ability to increase the resolution should be contrasted with what many systems accomplish when they enlarge a screen display. It is the difference between blowing up a photograph, to enlarge elements, and using a zoom-lens so that greater detail is actually captured.

Managers under pressure to make fast decisions, or overloaded with work, can quickly test hypotheses in systems with on-line interactive planning capabilities. Computer screen geographic solutions are immediately produced and may be scanned for important relationships. An entire nation may be analyzed using broad criteria, then each area of interest seen in greater detail using stricter criteria on smaller geographic units. A systematic macro to micro analysitic framework helps pinpoint target areas for further study in a highly efficient manner.

The extent to which maps are used to understand spatial relationships and distance will

be an important criterion in deciding whether the system required should produce cartographically accurate maps. Many micro based products today create a graphic image of map elements but do not relate these elements to a projection system or scale. Cartographically accurate mapping systems usually display longitude and latitude "tick" marks and present a scale for use in calculating exact distances between specific loctaions.

Mapping systems that summarize information in rings around a location, within a bank of geography, by solutions sets, or in various other shapes give insight into the specific composition of target markets. Systems that integrate information from various data sources are able to produce reports on a full spectrum of information about areas. Some reporting functions enable users to specify custom layouts, others rely on default parameters. Packages with a high degree of data manipulation and calculation capability eliminate the need to transfer data for this purpose to other software packages.

Another feature to consider in computer mapping systems is the ability to display data items in the data base near the corresponding geographic elements. These items are not necessarily part of a query, but provide additional detail about specific areas, locations, or networks. For example, the average family size and lifestyle profile label could be printed in areas that are also being color–segmented by sales performance.

Computer mapping systems differ greatly in the amount of attention that has been paid to information display on finished maps. Hatch and cross-hatch patterns are available for plotting in a variety of angles. Multiple symbols and patterns such as dashes and double lines may be used to segment locations and road networks. Text for title and legend boxes may be automatically developed by the software and displayed in a selection of font styles and

sizes anywhere surrounding the map image.

To the extent that it is possible, the colors and patterns selected for terminal displays should extend directly to map specifications so that this information does not have to be re-entered. Systems with a direct interface to off-the-screen color printers exactly replicate a screen image on paper. This method of map production is the easiest and fastest, displaying first on the computer screen exactly what will be produced in the printed map.

The degree of user friendliness may mean the difference between whether the computer mapping system becomes a successful and often used decision support tool. Products should include on-line help programs, fully prompted input screens, and English-like syntax. Familiarity with a programming language should not be required. It should be possible to save and recall for editing queries and plotting specifications. Finally, a system should be ergonomically easy to use by individuals with a wide range of functions and skill levels.

Most companies offering computer mapping packages also supply geographic files. Vendors may specialize in providing highly detailed map files that include features such as cities, parks, airports, lakes, rivers, bridges, rail and rapid transit lines as well as multi-layered transportation networks. These features add a significant level of detail that reduce or eliminate the need to use base maps for further reference.

A product which includes the capability of digitizing and encoding files will allow the user to add or modify map elements on an ongoing basis. This may be a particularly desirable feature if, for example, the market typically under study has rapidly changing elements such as retail locations, or if an organization's sales regions or other administrative units frequently change.

The ease with which the tabular data and map files in a system may be modified is important if the system is to be continually enhanced. Information such as sales performance may be a desired addition on a quarterly basis. It should also be possible to easily add additional geographic areas and units to the system, with programs linking new data to the corresponding map files. Learn whether a major reorganization of sales regions, or additions in product line, would require restructuring of the data base, and how easily this is accomplished.

Turnkey systems, which integrate software and hardware into a readily usable package, are convenient but rarely allow custom modifications that can make a system much more valuable to a specific organization. For example, a system that cannot integrate proprietary company information or data from other vendors offers limited scope.

Include, in the cost of a system, the cost of other software required for operation either on a micro or mainframe computer. Additional hardware may also be required such as graphics boards, emulator cards, terminal controller, modem, and, of course, plotters and/or printers. For mainframe products, it will be important to understand memory (region) and disk storage requirements.

Selecting a vendor who bases his success on the satisfaction of his customers is an important ingredient in selecting the right computer-mapping product. Vendors with experienced personnel in your industry or function may provide valuable application support. Vendors that market demographic data, map files and mapping software offer one-stop shopping that can reduce the time spent with several different vendors. Software maintenance programs provide enhanced versions of a product, thereby maintaining capabilities close to state of the art. And it is most important that vendors should provide training, installation, testing, tutorials, system documentation, and

toll-free telephone assistance.

Vendors confident the functionality and benefits of their product may offer test or pilot projects to enable companies to gain hands-on experience at little or no cost. Taking advantage of these programs will promote confidence that the system selected is the right one for the application needs and structure of your organization. \square

Ensuring racial representation on jury panels: an empirical and simulation analysis

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Edgar W. Butler¹ University of California, Riverside

Jo-Ellan Huebner-Dimitrius¹ California State University, Long Beach California law specifically states that persons listed for service in the court:

shall be fairly representative of the population in the area served by the court and shall be selected upon a random basis (Section 9, 203).

Introduction

Geographic groupings which overlap with racial and economic groupings constitute recognizable classes.² Rural residents, for example, might be underrepresented due to excuses based on distance to the courthouse; often selection officials acquiesce in the reluctance of rural residents to serve. Excuses based on willingness to travel great distances have so reduced the jury pool that remedial action is required even without proof of geographic cohesiveness.³

The notion of vicinage or geographical locality requirement of jury selection has been traced at least as far back as to Charlemagne (Charles the Great) in 768 A.D. He instituted several reforms, one of which was the establishment of "Inquisito". One of the requirements of the Inquisito was that 13 to 66 witnesses be chosen from the neighborhood where they would have knowledge of the matter in dispute (Moore

¹Paper prepared for presentation at the International Association for Social Science Information Service and Technology (IASSIST) Conference held in Marina Del Rey, California, May 23, 1986.

^{&#}x27;See Thiel v. Southern Pacific Co., 328 U.S. 217 (1946), State v. Holstrom, 43 Wis. 465, 168 N.W. 2d 574 (1969), and State v. Cage, 337 So. 2d 1123 (La. 1976). The Federal Act requires that selection procedures "ensure that each county, parish or similar political subdivision within the district or division is substantially proportionally represented in the master jury wheel for that judicial district, division, or combination of divisions" (U.S. 1968, Section 1863 (b) (3)).

³ See United States v. Fernandez, 480 F. 2d 726, 732-33 (2d Cir. 1973).

1973). The requirement of a jury from the vicinage, found in the Magna Carta as well as the Sixth Amendment, is also based on the notion that jurors should be selected from local residents. The meaning of this requirement is often unclear, as when a case from one division in a federal district court is tried in another division, or when grand jurors are selected from only one division.

Currently, federal law determines the nature of prospective jurors by specifying two key concepts in jury venire or panel selection procedures: (1) "a random" selection of jurors, and (2) the inclusion of special geographic districts wherein a particular court convenes, i.e., vicinage requirements (U.S. 1968, Section 1861). In California, as in most states, the law similarly requires: (1) a random selection of jurors and (2) selection from "judicial districts of the respective counties" (CA. 1981, Section 197, 206). Recent Federal and California Supreme Court decisions are such that any substantial violation of these basic requirements of jury selection in representativeness is a prima facie case of discrimination.5 Subsequently, an increasing number of challenges concerning the underrepresentation of "cognizable groups," e.g., minorities, have been brought claiming violation of the Sixth Amendment, a representative jury selected from a fair cross section of the community.6

One of the major problems in jury challenges is to establish a prima facie case for the underrepresentation of minorities. Part of the problem is due to the ambiguous relationship between random selection and vicinage requirement (area or district). Past Supreme Court cases have dealt with the systematic underrepresnetation of cognizable groups, e.g., blacks and Hispanics; however, the Court has not addressed the extent to which the area served by the court relates to the random selection of potential jurors. Vicinage or geographic representativeness has rather been dealt with, along with the random selection of jurors, without geographic representativeness being clearly demarcated.

In Duren v. Missouri, for example, the U.S. Supreme Court held that a three-prong test must be applied to establish a prima facie case of discrimination: (1) the group alleged to be excluded is a 'distinctive' group in the community, (2) the representation of this group in venires from which jurors are selected is not fair and reasonable in relation to the number of such persons in the community, and (3) this underrepresentation is due to systematic exclusion of the group in the jury-selection process (Duren v. Missouri 439 U.S. 357 364 1978). However, the Court did not spell out a clear cut relationship between juror representativeness and the vicinage requirement e.g., what is the "community"?

⁴ See U.S. 1968, Section 1861 and House Report at 1801.

See U.S. 90th Congress Senate Report No. 891 1967; U.S. 90th Congress House Report No. 1076 1968; The Yale Law Journal 1970; Kairys 1972; De Cani 1974; Chevigny 1975; Alker, Hosticka, and Michell 1976; Kairys, Kadane, and Lehoczky 1977; Alker and Barnard 1978; Heyns 1979; Butler 1980a, 1980b, and 1981; Butler and Fukurai 1984; Fukurai and Butler 1985.

For example in California, see People v. White 43 Cal. 3d 740 1954; People v. King 49 Cal. Rptr. 562 1966; People v. Sirhan 7 Cal. 3d 258 1978; People v. Wheeler 148 Cal. Rptr. 890 1978; People v. Estrada 155 Cal.

^{°(}cont'd) Rptr. 731 1979; People v. Graham 160 Cal. Rptr. 10 1979; People v. Harris 36 Cal. 3d 36, 201 Cal. Fptr. 782 679 P. 2d 433 1984. In Federal Supreme Court, see Alexander v. Louisiana 405 U.S. 625 1972; Peters v. Kiff 407 U.S. 493 1972; Taylor v. Louisiana 419 U.S. 522 1975; Duren v. Missouri 439 U.S. 357 1979; City of Mobile, Ala v. Bolden 466 U.S. 55 1980.

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Vicinage Requirement

The vicinage or geographical requirement of jury trials is an essential element of the Sixth Amendment as it pertains to the jury selection process. For illustrative purposes, we will use Los Angeles County and its twenty mile radius rule. However, the process itself is generalizable to all areas of Los Angeles County and any other bounded area such as a county, judicial district, etc.

The first provision for a jury trial in a vicinage can be found in Article III of the Constitution. Article III. Section 2 notes:

The Trial of all Crimes, except in Cases of Impeachment, shall be by Jury; and such Trial shall be held in the State where the said Crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the Trial shall be at such Place or Places as the Congress may by Law have directed.

Early in the 1970s, the Los Angeles County Board of Supervisors developed a policy that no juror had to travel more than twenty miles from his/her house to the courthouse. The County Board adopted this rule because of convenience for prospective jurors and economic reasons for the county. Subsequently, in California, the legislature defined the judicial district in Los Angeles County as being within a twenty mile radius from each courthouse. The California Code of Civil Procedure states that:

Each court shall adopt rules supplementary to such rules as may be adopted by the Judicial Council, governing the selection of persons to be listed as available for service as trial juriors. The persons so listed shall be fairly representative of the population in the area served by the court, and shall be

selected upon a random basis. Such rules shall govern the duties of the court and its attaches in the production and use of the juror lists. In counties with more than one court location, the rules shall reasonably minimize the the distance traveled by jurors. In addition, in the County of Los Angeles no juror shall be required to serve at a distance greater than 20 miles from his or her residence (CA. 1981, Section 7, 203).

Despite the explicit rule of random selection of potential jurors from the judicial district defined within 20 mile radius, recent jury venire challenge cases have argued the following two points: (1) there is a significant underrepresentation of prospective minority jurors and (2) there is an overrepresentation of particular neighborhoods with high concentrations of anglos (Heyns 1979; Butler 1980a, 1980b, 1981; Butler and Fukurai 1984; Huebner-Dimitrius 1984; Fukurai and Butler 1985; Fukurai and Butler 1986). These studies have shown that census tracts with a high anglo concentration are consistently overrepresented and consequently jury venires have consisted of a large number of potential anglo jurors, and an underrepresentation of minorities. This is apparent for all Superior Court districts in Los Angeles County except the Central District (Heyns 1979).

It is theoretically possible to have race/ethnic representation on juries, yet not have a fair cross section of the community or areas served by the court from which jurors are being drawn to serve on juries (Heyns 1979; Huebner-Dimitrius 1984; Fukurai 1985; Fukurai and Butler 1985). Generally however, racial and geographic representativeness are highly correlated; therefore, it is possible to ensure the cross-section representation of minorities by controlling the random selection of geographic areas. Currently, the overrepresentation of particular neighborhoods contributes to a substantially greater chance of anglos serving on

juries, while a random selection of neighborhoods would ensure the fair representation of minorities as prospective jurors within a district.

In this paper, we present an analytic strategy that will overcome racially disproportionate jury venires. Rather than first focusing on the selection of individual potential jurors, random selection of neighborhoods is examined, i.e., census tracts from which prospective jurors are being drawn to serve on juries. Our analysis demonstrates the extent to which neighborhood representativeness could rectify the disproportionate underrepresentation of minorities currently the case in most jury venires. The main thrust of this paper, thus, is threefold: (1) to propose a geographic sampling strategy to overcome underrepresentativeness of minorities, (2) to illustrate our strategy using simulation techniques, and (3) to show the extent to which geographical randomness can help ensure that racially proportionate jury venires are obtained. By simulating the Los Angeles County selection process, a comparison between the actual jury composition and the simulated jury composition is examined to show the extent to which the proposed geographic sampling strategy is superior to the current selection procedures employed in Los Angeles County and elsewhere.

Data

Two data sets were linked to serve as the foundation for the simulation of the jury selection process: (1) 1980 U.S. Census Bureau data and (2) jury impanelment lists for a retrial of the Harris case (36 Cal. 3d 36 201 Cal. Rptr. 782 679 P. 2d 433 1984).

Eight jury impanelment lists were obtained to delineate neighborhoods (census tracts) from which jurors were being drawn to the Long Beach Superior Court and to determine whether or not the panels represented a fair cross section. The impanelment period under investigation, while not ideal, was lengthy enough to determine whether or not jury venires were representative of the community population. These eight panels were typical of panel data available for other time periods, including the first Harris trial 1979.

Empirical Analysis

Figure 1 depicts racial composition of the Long Beach judicial district using a variety of definitions of the area served by the court. Map A illustrates the areas served by the Superior Court, as presented in the Harris retrial. (Ed.Note. Figures and maps have collected together at end of article)

This variation in the definitions of the area served by the court shows that there is a potential for either conscious or unconscious manipulation of minority representation on jury panels. Thus the particular "area served by the court" becomes important in jury challenges. That is, if it is to be determined whether or not jurors represent a fair cross section of the community, the area served by the court must be clearly delineated or a valid comparison cannot be made.

Six different areas served by the court emerged during the Harris retrial. The first was Los Angeles County as a whole. In the first Harris

Empirical analyses of People v. Harris (36 Cal. 3d 36, 201 Cal. Rptr. 782 679 P. 2d 433 1984) were performed at University of

^{&#}x27;(cont'd) California, Riverside. In People v. Harris, the motion of respondent for leave to proceed in forma pauperis was granted; however, the Writ of Certiorari by the prosecution to the Federal Supreme Court was denied on Oct. 29, 1984.

trial the prosecution argued that Los Angeles County-wide data were the proper comparison. The Harris opinion rendered by the California Supreme Court concluded that

The parties, however, presented evidence and argued this case on the assumption that all juries in Los Angeles County must be representative of the entire county. The principal question before us is whether evidence based on total countywide population figures, rather than jury-eligible population, is adequate to make out a prima facie case; for the reasons explained in this pinion, we conclude that it is. The state has not attempted to rebut this prima facie showing by arguing that the Long Beach juries need only represent those persons living within 20 miles of the courthouse, and has not attempted to show that such juries were truly representative of that limited area (Harris 36 Cal. 3d 36, 201 Cal. Rptr. 782 679 P. 2d 433 1984).

A second area served by the court is within a 20-mile region, as delineated by California state law; that is, any juror may be excused from being sent to a particular courthouse that is further than 20 miles from his/her residence. In 1978, the 20-mile region delineated by the Jury Services Division in Los Angeles County was for the most part a 20-mile straight line from the courthouse. However, in 1983 the area served by the court was reduced to a 15-mile direct line, presumably on the basis that the driving distance would be 20 miles. Thus, a third definition of the area serviced by the court was considered.

A fourth area served by the court was empirically delineated. This area was determined by delineating those census tracts from which jurors were summoned for eight panels. A fifth area served by the court could not be determined geographically but is obviously different from the others. This fifth

area is a subset of the fourth area which was geographically determined. For each juror summoned, knowledge of their census tracts and address was made available, thus the area served by the court could be empirically determined. All of the potential jurors who showed up at the Long Beach Courthouse came from these impanelments and thus were a subset of the impanelment lists. However, between the impanelment or summons stage and the jury venire stage, there was between a 40–50 percent dropout. Thus, they are similar but not the same. Unfortunately we were unable to delineate areas of residence at this stage.

Finally, during the course of the Harris retrial, the prosecution argued that a sixth area was more important than these other five. This specific area was known as the Long Beach Superior Court District, as defined by the Los Angeles Board of Supervisors. This area is used by the legal system in allocating trials. Thus, if a person commits a crime in this bounded area and it becomes necessary to have a trial, it typically, but not invariably, will be assigned to the Long Beach Courthouse. However, this particular area is not coterminous with any of the other five areas served by the court. Obviously, all the areas are within Los Angeles County, but otherwise they have nothing in common.

Table 1 shows the racial composition of the eligible Hispanic population and impanelment lists using the 15-mile radius definition of the area served by the court. Thus, while 20.9 percent of potential jurors at a 15-mile level were Hispanic, only 10.1 percent of jurors impaneled and summoned to the Long Beach Superior Court were Hispanic. Underrepresentation of Hispanic jurors was inevitable because of the under-selection of Hispanically dominant census tracts. Table 1 thus shows that more than one-half of the potential Hispanic jurors were underrepresented on the impanelment list. Z scores and

chi-square values show that Hispanic jurors are statistically underrepresented on the impanelment list; thus, the Hispanic composition on the impanelment lists is significantly different from the racial composition of the Long Beach judicial district, as defined by the 15-mile radius.

The underrepresentation of both Hispanic and black jurors on the eight panels under investigation was consistent. Table 2 shows the racial composition of minority jurors on both impanelment lists and census tracts from which potential jurors are summoned. Census tracts with a high concentration of anglos are overrepresented whereas minority dominated census tracts are underrepresented.

Table 3 shows the representation of census tracts on eight impanelments. Potential jurors from one census tract were represented thirty-six times, while fifty-one census tracts were represented less than five times. Table 3 also indicates that one-half the potential jurors came from twenty-three census tracts (5.2%) of the total of 439 tracts in the Long Beach judicial district defined by a 15-mile radius.

Table 4 indicates the average representation of census tracts on eight panels. The table shows the extent to which tract representation is related to the racial composition of the census tract. For example, census tracts which were selected less than the average number of times had three and ten percent higher black and Hispanic populations respectively. One-half the overrepresented census tracts had four and fourteen percent less black and Hispanic population, respectively.

Maps 1 to 8 illustrate the census tracts from which actual potential jurors were summoned. These maps show that the census tracts were concentrated in particular regions, i.e., the lower portions which border on Orange County. From previous tables, it should be obvious by now that these census tracts are characterized by

a high concentration of anglos. In any case, and for whatever reason, anglo dominant census tracts are clearly overrepresented on the jury impanelment lists.

One dubious explanation is that anglos are more qualified than minority groups for jury duty.8 However, the proportion of qualified jurors is the same for the impaneled census tracts and the Long Beach Superior Court judicial district as a whole. Table 5 shows the proportion of qualified jurors in the impanelment list and the Long Beach judicial district. While 19.9 percent of jurors in impaneled census tracts are qualified jurors, 19.1 percent of those in the Long Beach judicial district are equally qualified. Thus, the percentage of qualified jurors has no bearing on the underrepresentation of minority jurors. Further, a random method of selecting jurors has not been exercised, i.e., impaneled census tracts are clustered in particular regions characterized by an anglo population. Many minority dominant census tracts are not included in the impanelment list. even though the proportion of qualified jurors is the same in both impaneled and non-impaneled census tracts.

Research indicates the overrepresentation of anglo jurors is necessary since criminality is inherent in some minority groups (Hepburn 1978; Cullen and Link 1980; Turk 1981; Kramer 1982). Thus, minority groups "take[s] a permissive view of crime within its border. As a result, the black community is vulnerable to its own criminal element as well as to the criminal element of the white community" (The Yale Law Journal 1970, p.534). Further, researchers suggest that county clerks responsible for selecting names from master files purposely exercise systematic selection rather than random selection in creating racially disproportionate jury pools (Alker and Barnard 1978; Levine and Schweber–Koven 1976). Because so many different persons use individual discretion to decide who should be excused and who should serve, the possibility of individual prejudice influencing excuses and exemptions is great (Van Dyke 1977, p.391).

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Geographic Random Selection

One means by which to rectify the disproportionate representation of census tracts is to implement the random selection of census tracts within a judicial district but geographically defined. Such random selection should provide a list of census tracts equally distributed within the limited, spatially bounded context, i.e., 15-mile radius, or whatever. Since our analysis shows that qualification of particular racial populations does not have a bearing on the selection of anglo-dominant census tracts, the random selection of tracts provides a foundation for equally selecting various racial/ethnic groups within them thus resulting in a fair cross-section of the population, vis-a-vis minorities.

A simulated random selection of census tracts was carried out in the following manner. Each census tract within a 20-mile radius of Long Beach judicial district was given a unique number. A series of random numbers were generated for the selected number of census tracts for each of eight panels. Those eight individual simulations were conducted to correspond to the actual eight impanelments as previously empirically analyzed and used in the Harris retrial.

Maps 9 through 16 illustrate the simulated mapping of census tracts randomly selected within the Long Beach judicial district. Each map shows that selected tracts are evenly distributed in space. The number of potential jurors also shows that using this process, minority groups would have an equal chance of selection for jury service.

Table 6 shows the racial composition of selected census tracts for each of the simulated panels. Within the 20-mile radius 26.7 percent of potential jurors were Hispanic and 14.8 percent for black. A Z scores statistical test for

differences in racial composition between census tracts derived by random selection and the 20-mile radius district was then carried out. Not one of the scores was significant, suggesting that each of the randomly selected samples of tracts had a racial composition similar to that of the 20-mile radius judicial district. This, of course, is in stark contrast to the actual impanelments analyzed in the first section of this paper.

Map 17 shows the mapping of all census tracts in eight panels using the simulation method. The map shows that random selection of census tracts provides a virtual equally distributed list of tracts from which potential jurors would have been summoned. Such random selection also provides an unbiased racial representation.

Critique

The results of our simulation clearly show that the process we have suggested is far superior to the current process in ensuring a fair cross section of jurors.

One question, of course, is whether or not this process is allowable under current Federal and State statues. Our response is that not only is it allowable, but the results of the simulation imply that our process should be mandated by law. Another argument that possibly could be made against the proposed process is that qualification varies by district. However, our evaluation of the actual juror qualification rate for Los Angeles County compared with the Long Beach District (20-mile) showed that the qualification rate was virtually identical. Even if there had been some variation, such variation could be fitted into the system.

Another possible objection to the randomized geographical process is that it would increase

the overall mileage driven by jurors. This is true. Any system that results in a fair cross section will result in more aggregate miles driven because of the very fact that the jurors would be from all areas of the district rather than concentrated in certain areas. This is a necessary part of a system that results in a fair cross section of the community - jurors must come from all parts of the community. The proposed system does away with the idea of selecting only jurors from areas closest to the court, and in fact, requires just the opposite. That is, jurors are drawn from all areas of the district. However, the district could still fall within the state law mandated 20-mile region for Los Angeles County.

In Los Angeles County, a particular problem that must also be dealt with is the overlapping of judicial district boundaries. This problem is amenable to statistical sampling methods. However, even if some overrepresentation should occur, it would be substantially less than is now occurring using non-random selection of areas.

Finally, the analysis presented here represents only part of a year and thus might be considered static. A dynamic jury selection process involves selecting jurors periodically. However, jurors also are qualified only periodically. Thus a dynamic system of jury qualification could use the same technique described in the simulation section. That is, the jury qualification process could also be accomplished by the random selection of census tracts, and the mailing out of questionnaires periodically throughout the year.

Conclusions

Our analysis conclusively shows that currently there is a systematic and biased selection method employed in the Long Beach judicial district and elsewhere in Los Angeles County. The racial composition of actual impaneled census tracts indicates that (1) selected census tracts are clustered in regions with high concentrations of anglos and (2) Hispanic and black potential jurors are systematically weeded out in the selection process because of biased impanelment lists. One possible reason for such systematic selection of anglo dominant census tracts might be that anglo jurors in particular census tracts are more qualified than their minority counterparts. However, the proportion of qualified jurors from anglo dominant census tracts was the same as that of the judicial district as a whole.

We suggested an alternative sampling strategy of random selection of census tracts which provides a representative list of tracts from which potential jurors could be summoned. Our simulation analysis showed that selected census tracts could provide a list of potential jurors that would be unbiased, i.e., racially representative. That is, the impanelment lists would have a racial composition similar to the judicial district. Our method of randomly selecting census tracts is clearly superior to the selection method currently employed in Los Angeles County, because the potential jurors coming from the selected tracts are evenly distributed and have an equal chance of being selected. The random selection of census tracts, thus, is congruent with requirements established by both the Federal Jury Selection and Service Act in 1968 and the California Code of Civil Procedure in 1981.9

Federal Jury Selection and Service Act was passed in 1968 to guarantee that "all litigants in Federal courts entitled to trial by jury shall have the right to grand and peut juries selected

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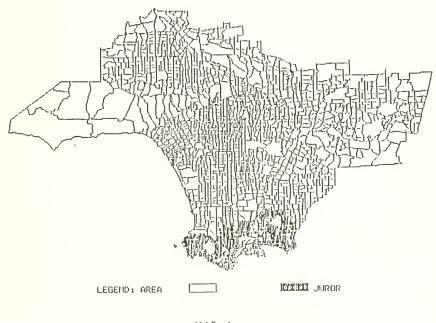
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Map A

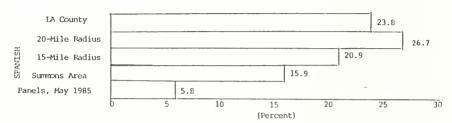
THE AREA SERVED BY THE LONG BEACH SUPERIOR COURT
IN THE HARRIS RETRIAL, 1985



MAP A

Figure 1

LONG BEACH JUNOR PANELS AND 1980 U.S. CENSUS DATA FOR DIFFERENT AREAS SERVED BY THE COURT: BLACK AND SPANISH POPULATIONS



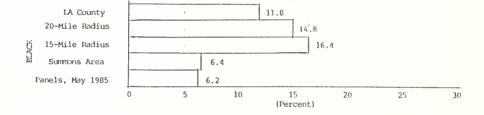


TABLE 1

LONG BEACE SUPERIOR COURT ELIGIBLE POPULATION AND IMPAUTIMENT LISTS

7ariable	Long Beach District 20-Mile Radius	Impanelment Lists	Absolute Disparity	Relacive Disparity	2 Score	Chi-Squara Value
Non- Elspanic	79.34	89.3%	10.3	13.7	7.5**	11.7
Eispanic	20.9%	10.12	-10.8	-51.7	-7.5**	44.3

^{* 4/24/85} through 6/12/85

^{**} Significant at <<<0.0001 level.

Table 2

TABLE 0 LONG BEACH: 8 FAMELS AFREL 04, 1985 TO TUNE 10, 1985

	Hispanic			Black		
Panel Date		Impanelment List	Census Tract	Score	Census Tract	Scare
i	-235	9.0%	10.7%	-2.9	7.0%	-2.3
2. 5-	1-63	10.0	16.1	-2.7	7.7	-2.3
3. 5-	8-35	13.0	12.5	-1.9	5.3	-2.
. 5-	15-35	11.0	11.3	-1.4	7.5	-2.
5. 5-	-22-35	12.0	14.2	-2.2	5.2	-3.
5. 5-	-29-35	11.0	13.7	-2.4	4.7	-3.
7. 6-	-5-85	7 . 2	13.2	-3.8	9.2	-2.
3. ó-	12-83	C.3	12.7	-2.7	3.2	-2.:
TO	TáL	10.1	15.9 *	-7.5	ó.÷*	-7.6

^{*} Percentages are calculated on the basis of all included census tracts.

TABLE 3

REPRESENTATION OF CENSUS TRACTS ON 8 PANELS
LONG BEACH SUPERIOR COURT DISTRICT
APRIL 24, 1985 THROUGH JUNE 12, 1985

NO. OF TIMES ON B PANELS	NO. OF CENSUS TRACTS FREQUENCY	PERCENT	
,	10	9.34	
1 2	3	7.47	
3	11	10.28	
4	9	3.41	
5	13	12.15	
6	3	7.47	
7	9	8.41	
8	8	7.47	
9	2	1.36	
10	3	2.30	
11	3	2.30	
12	8	5.60	
13	7	6.54	
14	1	0.93	
17	1	0.93	
18	2	1.86	
19	1	0.93	
20	1	0.93	
22	1	0.93	
23	1	0.93	
34	1	0.93	
36	1	0.93	

Median = 6

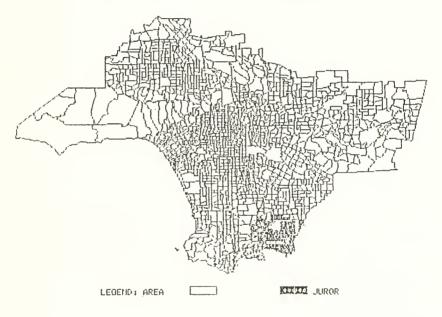
Mean = 7.5

TABLE
AVERAGE REFRESENTATION OF CENSUS TRACES ON S PANELS
LONG SEACH SUPERIOR COURT DISTRICT

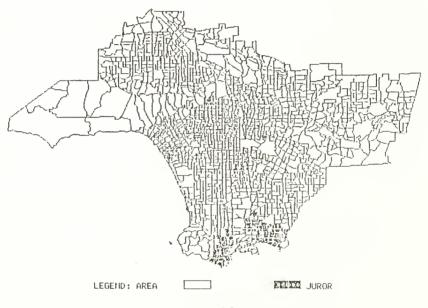
		Mean		Median	
Race	Long Beach* District	3 Times or More	: Times or Less	7 Times or Mora	0 Times
Black	16.4%	4.32	7,6%	4.6%	3.3%
Hispanic	20.9	9.2	19.5	9.2	22.9

^{* 430} census tracts included

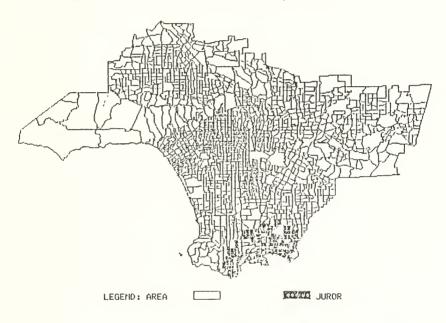
LONG BEACH: APRIL 24, 1985



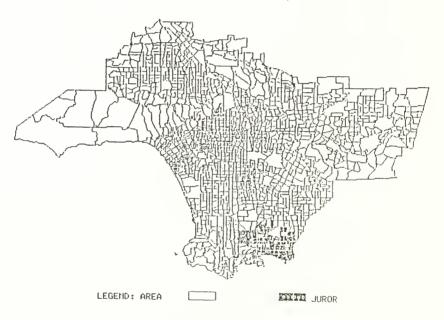
LONG BEACH: MAY 1, 1985



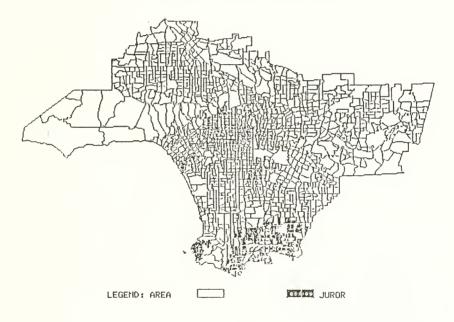
LONG BEACH: MAY 8, 1985



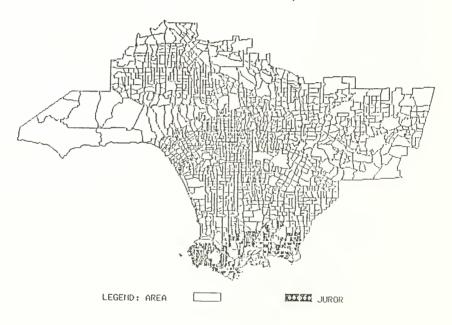
LONG BEACH: MAY 15, 1985



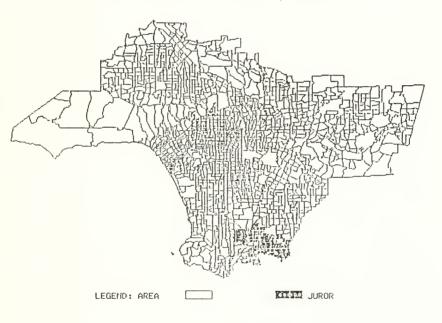
LONG BEACH: MAY 22, 1985



LONG BEACH: MAY 29, 1985



LONG BEACH: JUNE 5, 1985



LONG BEACH: JUNE 12, 1985

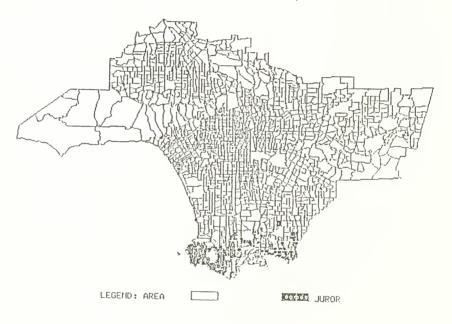
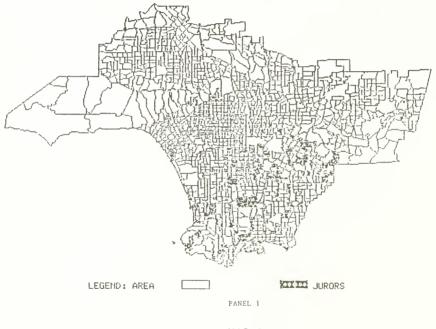


TABLE 5
QUALIFIED JURGES*
LONG BEACH SUPERIOR COURT

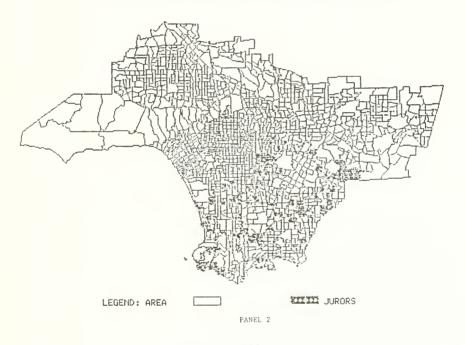
	Long Beach Judicial District		Impanelment Lists ²	
	Уо.	Percent	No.	Percenc
Total Jurors	243,274	100%	62,758	100%
Qualified Jurors	46,436	19.1%	12,459	19.9%

- 1. Total number of census tracts are 439.
- 2. Total number of census tracts are 107.
 - \star Source: Los Angeles Jury Supervisor Ray Arce and his computer consultants, 1985

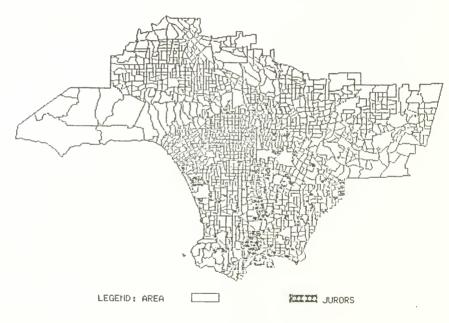
LONG BEACH SUPERIOR COURT DISTRICT



LONG BEACH SUPERIOR COURT DISTRICT

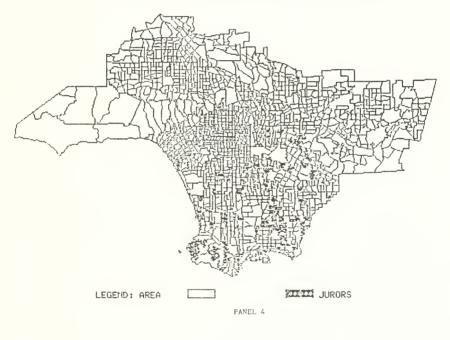


LONG BEACH SUPERIOR COURT DISTRICT

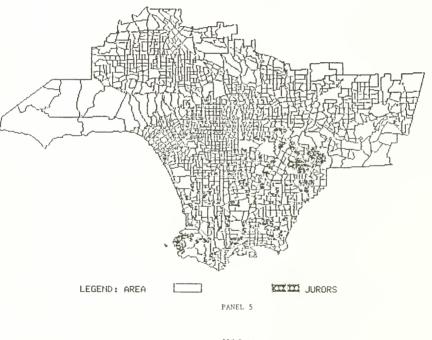


PANEL 3

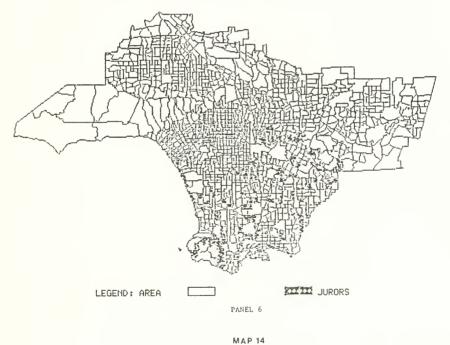
LONG BEACH SUPERIOR COURT DISTRICT



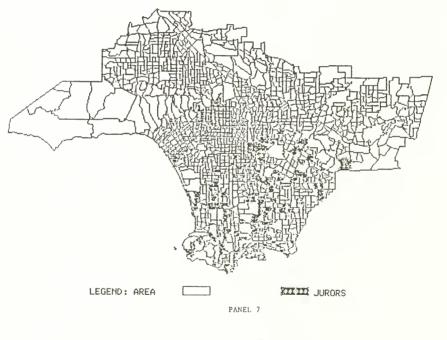
LONG BEACH SUPERIOR COURT DISTRICT



LONG BEACH SUPERIOR COURT DISTRICT



LONG BEACH SUPERIOR COURT DISTRICT



LONG BEACH SUPERIOR COURT DISTRICT

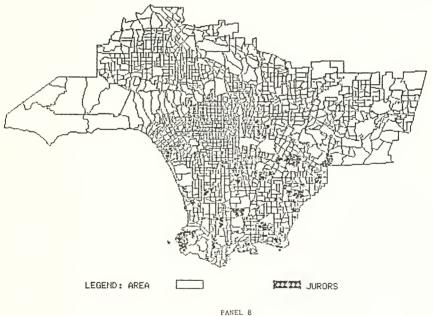
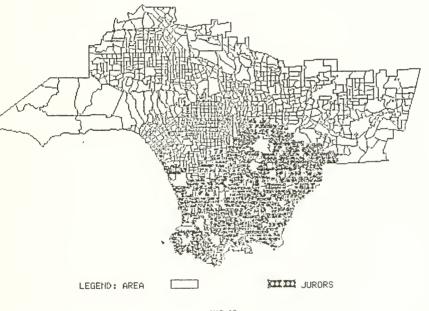


TABLE 6

LONG BEACH: S PANELS BY RANDOM SELECTION APRIL 24, 1985 TO JUNE 12, 1985

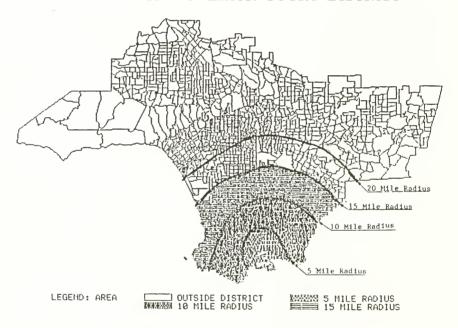
		Hispanic		Black		
Par	nel Date	Census Tract	Z Scores	Census Tract	Z Scores	
1.	4-24-85	26.7%	0.0	17.1%	0.6	
2.	5-1-85	23.9	-0.6	12.6	-0.6	
3.	5-8-85	29.8	0.7	15.9	0.3	
4.	5-15-85	24.6	-0.5	13.9	-0.3	
5.	5-22-85	24.7	-0.5	11.3	-1.0	
6.	5-29-85	30.2	0.8	8.7	-1.7	
7.	6-5-85	25.8	-0.2	13.8	-0.4	
8.	6-12-85	25.9	-0.2	12.0	-0.7	
_						
	TOTAL	27.4	0.4	13.7	-0.9	

LONG BEACH DISTRICT: 8 PANELS



Appendix A

LONG BEACH SUPERIOR COURT DISTRICT



APPENDIX A

CD-ROM and the data archive: beyond retrieval

by Ann Gerken¹ University of California, Berkeley

Optical storage offers data archives a new medium for storing data and a change in the information retrieval environment. As with any new technological development, it is important to evaluate the impact and tradeoffs of adapting to new equipment and systems. By stepping back for an overview of information storage and access, better evaluations may be made within the context of the "big picture" of data use. Before embracing this new technology, it is important to understand where we are going and how optical storage can help us. Optical media offer some solutions to storage problems. but have not yet shown themselves to be solutions to the overall needs of information providers and users.

First of all, thanks go to Forrest Williams, Census Bureau, and to George Hall and Courtney Slater, of Slater-Hall Information Products, and to Ed Spar, of Market Statistics. These people have provided us with CDROM test disks for our evaluation, and I sincerely appreciate their support. Some of the points I will discuss today have been included in the report of the State Data Center's Subcommittee on CDROM. This report is available from John Kavalaunis of the Data User Services Division. My ideas do not necessarily reflect all the opinions of that subcommittee.

Consider the advantages of optical media as storage devices. CDROM and WORM disks provide a minimum of 10 years' secure storage. The disks provide random access, and are portable and compact. However, there are some problems. For most data archives who rely upon large centralized computing systems, the shift from storing data on tapes and disk packs to storing data on microcomputer peripherals means a dramatic shift in responsibility. How will data archives provide multiple user access to data on microcomputers? Can archives handle the equipment and network burden? Another problem with CDROM is that archives cannot produce CDROM disk copies in house; there is no local recording capability. This

¹Presented to The Association of Public Data Users October 22, 1987, Washington, DC

means that if data archives are to produce optical backups of their holdings, they must use WORM disks, and will have to acquire and maintain two kinds of optical devices. Other problems are access speed, and in some cases, limited storage capability (CDROMS only hold 4 reels of tape, and STF4 for California takes up 14 reels of tape). Another issue to consider is that the software to access the data on CDROMs and WORMs has not kept pace with the technology. Even though information on microcomputers appears to be closer to the end user, the interfaces and support for access are often limited. And finally, we must ask when will optical storage be cost effective, and when will the major data distributors begin to use this technology?

Information retrieval is the process of extracting specific data items from specific records in a data file. At this time, information retrieval software is produced for each CDROM product since standard retrieval software for statistical data files is not yet available. At its best, this retrieval process is informed, flexible, logical, and fast. However, since each data file comes with its own custom software there is a wide range in the quality of these software interfaces. Users will be required to learn multiple retrieval processes. Also, statistical CDROM products are more expensive to produce since producing custom software for each data file requires extensive programming.

The premastering and production of the optical disks themselves are different from producing magnetic tape. The physical process itself is more expensive, and the nature of the files on the disk differ. Since the medium is randomly accessed, "disk geography," or where on the disk various records will be placed, is more important than with tapes. Disk geography can improve performance if done carefully. Disk indexes should be produced and mastered with the data file if the disk is to prove efficient in sophisticated retrieval applications. Error detection and correction codes must also be

provided. In summary, "raw" data files on CDROM should be more carefully developed than those provided on magnetic tape. To exploit the technology and access software, optical products should be distributed with value added files.

After information is retrieved, "beyond retrieval", lies the world of post processing where the information is manipulated and packaged to user specifications. At its best, this processing should be supported by an integrated system providing clear steps for users to follow. Information retrieved from CDROM products should be compatible with inhouse software, and transfer of the information should be standard and simple.

In our evaluations, we considered three CDROM products in relation to data product preparation, information retrieval, and post processing. The three CDROM products we evaluated were: Census Test Disk #1, which includes data and software for ZIP codes. population estimates, and the 1982 Census of Agriculture; Slater Hall's 1982 Census of Agriculture disk; and "Your Marketing Consultant" form Market Statistics. The Census disk offers simple extract programs that demonstrate the usefulness of optical storage. The procedures for retrieval are straight forward and can be done by any novice computer user. A highlight of the Slater Hall software is its online help for each variable in the data base. as well as its numeric search capabilities. "Your Market Consultant" offers the capability of sorting data by user defined criteria, and allows users to add their own data to the tables.

Our evaluation at the State Data Program emphasized the retrieval and post processing capabilities of these products, but did not take a close look at the premastering and production of the CDROMs. The issues of disk geography and indexing are yet to be evaluated. However, in the area of retrieval, it is clear that a standard procedure has emerged among these

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products. Users progress through a series of simple procedures, first selecting geographic areas, then identifying a table or variables, then extracting data from the disk, and finally producing display, report or file output.

What more do archives and users need from this kind of product? Given that a CDROM product provides the information that a user wants, a separate procedure is often required after retrieving information. A user must sort and create custom tables, graphics, or spread sheets in another system. Obviously, there is a need to coordinate software compatibility and command language among in-house software, so that users are not faced with a confusing array of software and transfer methods. In addition, the lack of numeric manipulation and statistical analysis in the CDROM software requires an interface with statistical software currently in use. Data as well as textual information must be moved in efficient ways and in compatible formats.

None of the current CDROM products contain microdata, i.e. data for individual households, persons or establishments. The data that are available are summaries for geographic units, useful for many applications, but are only part of the larger universe of data. Extracts of microdata files are regularly produced in the archive environment, and products and procedures using CDROM technology should be considered.

Our suggestions are that 1) data distributors keep an open mind about which kind of optical media to adopt, so that archives are not forced to develop dual systems, one for data acquisition (CDROM) and one for data file backup (WORM). We also are concerned about the technology becoming outdated. 2) Optical products should be mastered to allow for optimal retrieval by a variety of software, including relational database management software. 3) Retrieval software should provide output that is compatible with other software,

and the transfer of data should be an integral part of the software product. 4) Data distributors should view their products not only as stand-alone retrieval systems, but as pieces of a larger information support system.

Some questions for the future: How can optical storage be integrated into the existing information fabric? Who will build the interfaces for informed transfer of data from system to system? Do we place responsibility upon the private sector to develop retrieval products, and how involved can we become? What information systems are in use that identify, retrieve, transfer, and analyze data? How may these systems influence the development of CDROM and WORM products?

Data archives have a long history of responding to technological changes: from IBM cards to low density tapes, from floppy diskettes and random access disk packs to optical media. Eric Tanenbaum wrote: "Archives have a privileged role among information providers for they were among the first to computerize. Thus they offer a rare perspective from which to view the changes." (IASSIST Quarterly, Spring 1986) I believe that archivists will be studying these changes and will offer a unique perspective in emphasizing the integration of new technology into existing services and procedures. Archivists and other information professionals have an opportunity to participate in the development of standard, reliable storage media, to assist in the design and evaluation of powerful flexible retrieval software, and to help create dynamic post-retrieval environments."

Contents of Current Journals

Contents of current journals

European political data newsletter

nr. 64 September 1987

Data Section:

Research in progress:

- p. 4 The Luxembourg income study.
- p. 17 The development of trade unions in western European societies.
- p. 21 Study of the Spanish trade union movement during the post-Franco transition./ Salvador Aguilar

Books:

- p. 23 Ten years later: contributions to the analysis of the party system in Spain./ Gabriel Colome
- p. 25 Election more about who governs than what government does?

Archive news:

p. 27 Membership in IFDO.

Computer section:

- p. 30 Political science information exchange via available telecommunications facilities: electronic mail and electronic conferencing./ Per Nielsen
- p. 35 Micro-CDS/ISIS: a bibliographic information management software from UNESCO./ Peter Jasco et al.

Books:

- p. 52 Danish elections 1920–1979. A logit approach to ecological analysis and inference./ Jostein Ryssevik
- p. 56 4CaST/2: a time series forecasting and data analysis system.
- p. 58 SHAZAM: a general computer program for econometric methods (version 5).

Forthcoming events:

p. 60 APDU: 12th annual conference.

- p. 61 IASSIST: 14th annual conference.
- p. 62 SSDBM: 4th international working conference.
- p. 63 ICDBHSS: 3rd annual conference.

Bits & bytes review vol. 1(5), April 1987

- p. 1 Product reviews: spelling programs. Four MS-DOS, stand alone spelling programs: Jet:Spell(tm), MicroSpell, Word Proof II, Webster's NewWorld.
- p. 17 Coming events.
- p. 18 What's news.
- p. 20 Fine print.
- p. 20 In future issues.

Bits & bytes review vol. 1(6), May 1987

- Product reviews: five stand-alone spelling programs for Macintoshes Spelling Champion, Spellswell, Thunder, Liberty Spell II, WorksPlus Spell.
- p. 16 Coming events.
- p. 17 What's news.
- p. 19 Fine print.
- p. 20 In future issues.

ESRC data archive bulletin

nr. 38 September 1987

News:

- p. 1 British Library research and development award.
- p. 1 A new structure for the ESRC.
- p. 1 Seminar on the Online Information Retrieval System.
- p. 2 Dissemination of research results.
- p. 2 GHS update.
- p. 3 Rural areas database update.
- p. 3 New offices.
- p. 3 New staff.

New acquisitions:

- p. 4 Selected list of new acquisitions.
- p. 4 Health evaluations.
- p. 4 Social identity and the understanding of economic change.
- p. 4 Women and leisure: constraints and opportunities.
- p. 5 Greenwich open space project: household survey and group transcripts, 1986.
- p. 5 Public lending right loans data.
- p. 6 Updates to serial holdings.

Research organisations, data institutions and foreign archives:

p. 6 Northern regional research laboratory - Lancaster.

Software bulletin:

Notes:

- p. 7 The Chorley report on geographical data handling.
- p. 7 Why Britain needs social science ALSISS
- p. 8 Survey methods newsletter.
- p. 8 Population trends.
- p. 9 Social research association.
- p. 9 Information management.
- p. 9 Area.
- p. 9 Employment gazette.
- p. 9 IASSIST quarterly.
- p. 10 European political data newsletter.
- p. 10 BURISA
- p. 10 Government computing.
- p. 10 SGCSA
- p. 10 Human factors in computing systems and graphics interface.
- p. 10 ESRC newsletter.
- p. 11 Statistical news.
- p. 11 Assignation.
- p. 11 Research on criminal justics and community relations.
- p. 11 Essex papers in politics and government.
- p. 11 Course for social scientists.
- p. 12 Forthcoming events.

Books.

p. 15 Changing the definition of a household, by Todd and Griffiths.

Book notes:

- p. 15 Nine-year-olds grow up, by S. Mitchell
- p. 16 Personal bibliographic indexes and their computerisation, by R. Heeks
- p. 16 The economics of online, edited by P. Bysouth
- p. 16 The television audience: patterns of viewing (an update), by G. Goodhardt, A.S.C. Ehrenberg and M.A. Collins
- p. 16 Text retrieval: a directory of software, ed. by R. Kimberly
- p. 16 The future of the metropolis: Berin-London-Paris-New York: economic aspects, ed. by H.-J.

Ewers, J.B. Goodard and H. Mazerath

- p. 16 The quality of urban life, ed. by D. Frick
- p. 16 Matrices for statistics, by M.J.R. Healy
- p. 16 Information theory: structural moels for qualitative data, by K. Klippendorff
- p. 17 A handbook for social science research, by B.R. Dixon, G.D. Bouma and G.B.J. Atkinson

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- p. 17 A: Recent additions to the ICPSR archive at Michigan.
- p. 18 B: Datasets acquired since the publication of Bulletin 37.

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- p. 38 Software.
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- p. 40 Publications.
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 - p. 43 Hardware reviews.
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 - p. 47 Calendar.

Survey methodology vol. 13(1), June 1987

- p. 1 Telephone sample designs for the U.S. black household population./ K.M. Inglis, R.M. Groves and S.G. Heeringa
- p. 15 Comparing telephone and face-to-face interviewing in the United Kingdom./ W.M. Sykes and M. Collins
- p. 29 Issues in the use of administrative records for statistical purposes./ G.J. Brackstone
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- p. 93 Sample design for the health and activity limitation survey./ D. Dolson, K. McClean, J.-P.

Morin, and A. Theberge

p.109 Comparison of estimators of population total in two-stage successive sampling using auxiliary information./ F.C. Okafor

p.123 Corrigendum

Data user news from the Bureau of the Census vol 22(9), Sept., 1987

p. 1 New catalog and guide highlights Census Bureau data products and services. Lower payments for child support p. 2 U.S. and Canada sign agreement to improve export data. p. 3 Telephone contacts: Bureau of the Census. p. 7 States' share of exports now more precisely measured. Latest county population estimates on CENDATA(tm). Demand for CD-ROM? p. 8 U.S. statistics at a glance. New SIC codes.

Data user news from the Bureau of the Census vol 22(11), Nov., 1987

- p. 1 New report focuses on minority business owners.
- p. 2 Growth in number living alone slackens.
- p. 3 Women making headway in male-dominated professions.
- p. 4 Connecticut had highest proportion of labor force in export-related jobs. Census booklet celebrates constitution bicentennial.
- p. 5 TIGER, map information now online! Exporters get new electronic reporting assistance.
- p. 6 Population extimates for counties and metro areas. Measuring English language proficiency.
- p. 7 Construction boom in Midwest. Housing starts in decline, may have stabilized.
- p. 8 ASA annual meeting: Census Bureau staff discuss research on statistical trends and methods.
- p. 10 November '86 voter turnout down from '82. Understanding and using economic census data.
- p. 11 Federal data highlights.
- p. 12 U.S. statistics at a glance.

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Computing practices:

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p.972 The relationship of MIS steering committees to size of firm and formalization of MIS planning./ William J. Doll and Golamreza Torkzadeh

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V.5(4) Winter 1987

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- p. v Introduction./ David Garson p.439 Computing in sociology: bringing back balance./ Kenneth E. Hinze.
- p.452 Anthropological computing in the mid-1980s./ Dennis O'Neil
- p.466 Computer use by psychologists./ Michael L. Stoloff, James V. Couch and Sarah Riley
- p.476 Instructional microcomputing in economics./ William P. Yohe, Robert E. Schenk and William B. Walstad
- p.485 Computers in political science./ Stephen Frantzich and Helen Purkitt
- p.506 Computer applications in public administration: increased capability at lower cost./ Thomas C. Foss
- p.514 Historians and computing, circa 1987./ James B.M. Schick
- p.529 The evolving statistics and research process using microcomputer software./ Edwin H. Carpenter
- p.546 Microcomputer expert systems./ Carl Grafton and Anne Permaloff
- p.558 News and notes.

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- p.581 PSYCOM: psychology on computer. (Janet L. Kottke)
- p.584 START. (Carole L. Ricketts)
- p.585 Multidimensional personality evaluation. (David Anderson)
- p.585 Professional personality inventory. (Larry D. Hilgert)
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- p.588 Probability demonstrations and tutorials. (J.A.F. Nicholls)

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p.595 Computing in psychology: an introduction to programming methods and concepts./ James H. Reynolds

Machine Readable Records bulletin vol. 5(3), Fall 1987

- p. 1 CULDAT record format.
- p. 2 ESRC seminar series on the bibliographic control of computer files.
- p. 2 Bureau of Canadian Archivists and descriptive standards.

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- p. 1 An algorithm for exact evaluation of multivariate functions and their derivatives to any order./ A.S. Wexler
- p. 7 Fitting generalized linear models and their nonlinear extensions with least-squares calculations./ W.D. Stirling
- p. 21 Maximum likelihood estimation in models with two systematic parts./ W.D. Stirling
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Section III: Notes, announcements and reviews

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- p. 50 Software. Networks.
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- p. 56 Databases.
- p. 57 The future of academic computing: faculty work stations at Indiana University./ Polly A. McClure
- p. 58 The Scholar's Toolbox: some generic software tools and some guides to their use./ Patricia Galloway
- p. 59 Calendar.

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- p. 10 Parlog86 and the dining logicians./ G.A. Ringwood
- p. 26 A view of the origins and development of Prolog./ J. Cohen
- p. 38 The early years of logic programming./ R.A. Kowalski

Computing practices:

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- p. 56 Anatomy of a compact user interface developmnt tool./ J.W. Stott & J.E. Kottemann

Research contributions:

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- p. 78 Computer backup pools, disaster recovery, and default risk./ Y. Kahane, S. Neumann & C.S. Tapiero

Data user news from the Bureau of the Census vol. 22(12), Dec. 1987

- p. I One million plus: San Diego and Dallas join the ranks.
- p. 2 Latest population and income estimates for places and counties. County estimates of households in 1985.
 - o. 3 Census Bureau will not adjust '90 census data. Where do the questions come from?
- p. 4 Two-thirds of U.S. workers have pension coverage.
- p. 5 Meeting the need for statistics on industrial automation.
- p. 6 Computer file profiles scientists and engineers. Previewing the '87 economic censuses.
- p. 7 College grad income nearly double that of high school grads. Getting the goods from GPO.
- o. 9 Only five states have more males than females. 'Mr. Housing' retires.
- p. 10 More Census Bureau staff papers at the American Statistical Association conference.
- p. 11 Over one-half of state expenses are for education and welfare.
- p. 12 Data user news annual index: January-December 1987.

Electoral studies V.6(3) December 1987

- p.195 General election forecasting in Britain: a comparison of three simple methods./ A. Mughan
- p.209 The impact of electoral formulae on the creation of majority governments./ A. Blais & R.K. Carty
- p.219 The Icelandic parliamentary election of 1987./ O.T. Hardarson & G.H. Kristinsson
- p.235 The Maltese general election of 1987./ S. Howe
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- p.263 Notes on recent elections: the British general election of 1987./ P. Cozens & K. Swaddle
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ICPSR Bulletin

(Inter-University Consortium for Political and Social Research) Dec. 1987

1 The general social survey: update on a national data resource for the social sciences. / Duane F. Alwin

p. 4 Additions to holdings:

General social surveys, 1972-1987: cumulative file.

Current population survey: annual demographic file, 1987.

Population estimates by county with components of change, 1986.

Net migration of the population of the United States by age, race and sex, 1970-1980.

Centre-periphery structures in Europe: 1880-1978.

ABC News/Washington Post exit poll, 1986.

ABC News Daniloff freedom poll, September, 1986.

ABC News/Washington Post summit poll, October 1986.

ABC News Iran poll, November 1986.

ABC News Reagan press conference poll, November 1986.

National health interview survey, 1984-1986: longitudinal study of aging, 70 years and over.

Consolidated federal funds report (CCRF), fiscal year 1986.

County population estimates (experimental) by age, sex, and race: 1980, 1982 and 1984.

Census of population and housing, 1980 [United States]: summary tape file 3d congressional district-level extract.

Recidivism among young parolees: a study of inmates released from prison in 22 states, 1978. Effects of prison versus probation in California, 1980-1982.

Prosecution of felony arrests, 1982: St. Louis.

Prosecution of felony arrests, 1982: Portland Oregon and Washington, DC

National evaluation of the community anti-crime program, 1979-1981.

Survey of consumer attitudes and behaviour, November 1976.

Survey of consumer attitudes and behaviour, February 1977.

Survey of consumer attitudes and behaviour, May 1977.

Survey of consumer attitudes and behaviour, August 1977.

Survey of consumer attitudes and behaviour, November 1977.

Party elites in the United States, 1974: Democratic mid-term conference delegates and

Sanford Commission members.

Party elites in the United States, 1976: Democratic national convention delegates.

Survey of city council members in large American cities, 1982.

National health and nutrition examination survey II: 1976-1980: physician examination, ages 6 mos - 74 vrs.

Aging in the eighties: America in transiton, 1981.

- p. 13 Notes and errata
- p. 15 Serial data collections: continuous updates.
- p. 18 Other announcements: 1988 ICPSR summer program tentative schedule)

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- p. 1 Editor's note
- p. 1 A new charging policy for archive services
- p. 2 Chorley report: the government's response
- o. 2 British election survey data distribution
- o. 3 GHS update: GHS Newsletter No.4
- p. 4 Rural areas database
- p. 4 New staff

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- p. 5 Selected list of new acquisitions
- p. 7 Updates to serials holdings

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- p. 8 The proposed University of Essex Institute for Social Science Research
- p. 9 ICPSR News
- p. 9 Research report: computer based index to the Irish Ordnance Survey Memoirs

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- p. 9 Customer-selected results from the 1991 population census using IKBS and highly secure technology./ D. Rhind & M. Higgins
- p. 11 SIGCHI Bulletin
- p. 11 Statistical news
- p. 11 Government computing
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- p. 12 ZUMA newsletter
- p. 12 BURISA
- p. 12 ESRC newsletter
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- p. 12 Population trends
- p. 12 European political data newsletter
- p. 12 Employment gazette
- p. 13 Survey methods for social researchers: course announcement
- p. 13 Assignation
- p. 13 Essex papers in politics and government
- p. 13 Software for statistical and survey analysis register
- p. 13 SGCSA prize for computing paper
- p. 13 Luxembourg income study summer workshop
- p. 14 Forthcoming events

Books:

p. 18 A guide to SPSS/PC+./ Neil Frude

The SPSS guide to data analysis instructor's manual./ M. Norusis

p. 19 On the record. Surveillance, computers & privacy - the inside story./ D. Campell & S. Connor.

Book notes:

- p. 19 British social attitudes, ed. by Jowell, Witherspoon & Brooks
- p. 19 Elections and voters, by M. Harrop and W. Miller
- p. 20 Ideology, strategy and party change: spatial analyses of post-war election programmes in 19 democracies, ed. by Budge, Robertson and Hearl
- p. 20 Online information retrieval in practice, ed. by L. Dorrington
- p. 20 Data collection in developing countries, by D. Casley and D. Lury

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- p. 22 Datasets acquired since the publication of Bulletin 38

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- p. 5 Complete censuses and samples./ L. Kish & V. Verma
- p. 18 Which countries will follow the Scandinavian lead in taking a register-based census of population?/ P. Redfern

Archive news:

- p. 27 The Soviet Union: the all-union sociological data bank (AUSDB).
- p. 29 Hunginfo: Hungarian social sciences and humanities.

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- p. 30 Recent additions to the series of Essex papers in politics and government.
- p. 34 New directory of political scientists in Britain

Computer section:

- p. 35 Information systems for urban and regional planning. An abstract of a SORSA paper prepared in coordination with UNESCO./ J.P. van Est, U. Maack, S.W. Witiuk & F.R. Broome
- p. 67 Developing a GIS for the European Community with the CORINE programme

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(Norwegian Social Science Data Service)

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- p. 3 Biographies of Storting delegates 1945-1985. [in Norwegian]
- p. 4 ICPSR Summer School in Ann Arbor. [in Norwegian]
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- p. 12 Survey data files in the NSD collections. [in Norwegian]
- p. 13 The Norwegian values survey. [in Norwegian]

Books:

- p. 13 Stat, nasjon, klasse. Essays i politisk sosiologi./ Stein Rokkan. 1987 [in Norwegian]
- p. 14 Arbeidsmarkedsprognoser./ J.E. Askildsen & E. Waerness, 1987. [in Norwegian]

NSD brukermelding

(Norwegian Social Science Data Service)

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- p. 2 Data on municipal elections. [in Norwegian]
- p. 3 Municipal census data for 1985. [in Norwegian] Essex Summer School. [in Norwegian]
- p. 5 IASSIST 88 [in Norwegian]
- p. 6 Documentation of NAVF and NORAS research projects. [in Norwegian]
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- p. 14 Books: [in Norwegian]

Nesset kommune gjennom 150 aar./ M. Angvik.

Eldreboelgen - en politisk utfordring./ K Hesselberg

Norwegian local tax policy./ T. Hansen.

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Data base reviews:

- p. 1 From Homer to Hesychius the Thesaurus Linguae Graecae Project. John J. Hughes.
- p. 7 From Torah to Talmud to today Responsa Project/global Jewish database. John J. Hughes.

- p. 13 Coming events
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(Swedish Social Science Data Service)

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- p. 1 International cooperation amongst academic data archives. [in Swedish]
- p. 4 Report on the IASSIST conference in Vancouver, May 19-22, 1987. [in Swedish]
 - o. 7 The 1988 IASSIST conference. [in Swedish]
- p. 8 The first CESSDA Expert Seminar, Odense, Sept. 16-29, 1987. [in Swedish]
- p. 10 ICPSR Summer School 1988. [in Swedish]
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- p. 14 Meeting of the SSD users' group, September 24, 1987. [in Swedish]
- p. 17 IMF data on magnetic tape./ Boo Sioeoe [in Swedish]
- p. 21 The Euro-barometer series. [in Swedish]
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- p. 38 New foreign surveys in SSD's collection. [in Swedish]
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 - SSD 0103 Demographic and economic time-series for Swedish municipalities.
 - SSD 0214 Survey on democracy versus bureaucracy in foreign and domestic policy.
 - SSD 0208 Referendum study 1957.
 - SSD 0203 Referendum study 1980.
 - SSD 0209 Archive of popular movements, 1881-1945.
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- p. 47 SSD class I data files. [in Swedish]
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(Danish Data Archives) nr. 42, summer 1987

- p. 3 Editorial.
- p. 5 Amendments to the Danish Data Protection Act, June 1987./ Per Nielsen [in Danish]
- p. 27 The Max Planck Historical Institute./ Hans J. Marker. [in Danish]
- p. 35 Newly processed data files: [in Danish]

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DDA-1069 Experienced workers and new technology, 1983.

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DDA-1245 Danish leisure study, 1987: child questionnaire.

DDA-1246 Danish leisure study, 1987: child interviews.

DDA-1347 Danish omnibus survey, January 1987.

DDA-1348 Danish omnibus survey, April 1987.

DDA-1349 Social networks and care of old people, 1987-1988.

DDA-1350 Maltreatment of old people - failing care, 1987-1988

. DDA-1351 Development of trade unions in Europe after World War II.

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- p. 6 BBC advanced interactive video and the Domesday discs./ Phyllis S. Gove
- p. 15 The North West Educational Computing Project./ Ian Robertson & Mike Picciotto
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- p. 107 Multi-Lingual Scholar (TM) version 3.0./ Torrey Seland [in Norwegian]
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(Zentralarchiv fuer Empirische Sozialforschung)

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1537 German election study 1987: panel study

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1593 Survey on foreign aid and the politics of development, 1979.

1594 Survey on foreign aid and the politics of development, 1981.

1595 Women, men, and computers.

1596 Youth, education, and occupation.

1597 Dialogue 2: publicity versus personal privacy.

1599 Survey of foreigners 1982: wave 1: household heads.

1600 Survey of foreigners 1982: wave 2: household members.

1601 General social survey ALLBUS 1984.

1602 Attitudes to technology, 1986.

1603 Development of drug use among youth.

1604 Transfer survey.

1605 Changes in traffic flow patterns 1976.

1606 Changes in traffic flow patterns 1982.

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1611 Continuing on to post-secondary education.

1611 The progression of working class children to post-secondary education.

1613 Marriage and the family. (1986)

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- p. 29 Attitudes on downtown Hamburg : further analysis using correspondence analysis./ J. Blasius [in German]
- p. 52 A LISREL-test of multivariate differences in non homogeneous variances and covariances. An example drawn from the foreign worker items in the 1980 and 1984 ALLBUSes./ S. Kuehnel [in German]
- p. 59 Factual questions and the reliability of responses. Sources of error in the data from two epidemiological studies – the Frankfurt mail survey./ E. Durin, R. Menzel, W. Bauhoefer. [in German]
- p. 70 A second round of discussion of problems in the use of categorical data from 3 wave panels: remarks on Jagodzinski's reply./ R. Langeheine [in German]
- p. 77 Reply to Langeheine. [in German]

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- p. 92 ZA spring seminar: the analysis of social networks. Feb. 2 Mar. 11, 1988, [in German]

ZUMA Nachrichten

(Zentrum fuer Umfragen, Methoden und Analysen e.V.)

nr. 21. November 1987

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- p. 20 Center for Microdata a new division of ZUMA. [in German]
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- p. 99 ZUMA workshop: Software for numerical simulation and model optimization on the PC, May 2-5, 1988.

- p. 100 ZUMA workshop: The analysis of categorical data, June 27-July 1, 1988.
- p. 101 ZUMA symposium: Social desirability situation and context, July 19-21, 1988
- p. 101 ZUMA workshop; Analysis of event data, July 1988.
- p. 102 ZUMA workshop: Causal modelling with EQS, July 1988.
- p. 103 Visitors to ZUMA, [in German]
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Special issue: the multivariate analysis of nominal and ordinal data.

- p. 3 Editorial
 - . 5 Educational opportunity and social mobility in the 19th century public sector: an overview./ P. Lundgreen [in German]
- 7 Multivariate analysis of nominal and ordinal scale data based on multidimensional contingency tables./ Juergen Sensch [in German]
- p. 172 Correspondence analysis a multivariate procedure for the analysis of qualitative data./ Joerg Blasius [in German]
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- p. 191 Data news [in German]
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- p. 214 Forthcoming conferences [in German]
- p. 218 Past conferences [in German]

Historical social research

nr. 44, October 1987

Special issue: history of employment structure in 20th century Europe.

- 3 Editorial
- p. 5 The regional structure of employment in Germany, 1895-1970./ H. Kaelble & R. Hohls
- p. 36 A century of change: trends in the composition of the Italian labour force, 1881–1981./ V. Zamagni
- p. 98 The development of the service sector in Germany and the Netherlands a comparison./ H. van Dijk
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Current research

- p. 127 The handbook of members of the Prussian Chamber of Deputies 1867-1918. The use of TUSTEP in biographical research. / T. Kuehne [in German] p. 141 Quantum information [in German]
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NOTICE

If your archive has a written collection development policy for machine-readable data files, please send a copy to, or contact Dan Tsang, Main Library, University of California, PO Box 19557, Irvine CA 92713, USA.

Tel: (714) 856-4978

Email: dtsang@orion.cf.uci.edu

He is researching such policies at academic libraries.

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Australian election survey, 1987

Background

This survey of 1,825 respondents is the first purpose-designed national election study undertaken in Australia. It has two goals. The first is to continue the broad line of inquiry established by the 1967 and 1979 Australian National Political Attitudes Surveys into the long-term character of national political attitudes and behaviour. The second, and more novel, is to focus more clearly on short-term forces, like issues and leaders, specific to the 1987 election. The principal investigators are Roger Jones of the Australian National University, lan McAllister of the University of New South Wales and Anthony Mughan formerly of the Australian National University and now of the Ohio State University. The survey was funded by the Australian National University and the University of New South Wales.

The Survey

A systematic random sample of 3,061 respondents was drawn from the electoral rolls at the Australian Electoral Commission two weeks before the election of 11 July 1987. The self-completion (mail out, mail back) questionnaire comprises 195 variables divided into six broad sections: The Federal Election, Political Leaders, Election Issues, Social and Political Goals, Education and Work and Personal Background.

The Federal Election section contains questions on concern about the election outcome, the influence of the media, party identification, vote in the 1984 and 1987 elections, the timing of the voting decision and the importance to the vote of a number of issues.

The Political Leaders section enquiries about feelings towards the party leaders indicated by ratings from 0 to 10, about their leadership qualities and their effectiveness as Prime Minister. It also assesses perceptions of the unity, moderation and class appeal of the Labour, Liberal and National parties.

The Election Issues section is the longest, focussing on economic voting, privatisation, government spending, trade union and big business power, uranium mining, law and order, Asian migration, marijuana, abortion, aborigines, testing for AIDS, censorship, homosexuality, the environment and

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opportunities for women.

The Social and Political Goals section contains Inglehart's postmaterialism questions, trust in government and modes of political participation questions.

Education looks at number of years of schooling, state or Catholic school and qualifications obtained. Work asks about employment status, occupation, public or private employment, supervisory responsibilities, trade union membership and subjective class.

The personal background questions include sex, place and length of residence, age, place of birth, date of arrival in Australia, father's occupation and party preference, marital status and children, spouse's occupation, trade union membership and party pareference and the respondent's religion and religious practice.

Availability

The data file and codebook are now available from The Social Science Data Archives, The Australian National University, GPO Box 4, Canberra, ACT 2601, Australia. Telephone (062) 494400.

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Career opportunities

Job Opening

Position Title: Associate Director, Government Data Center

Harvard University

The Government Data Center (GDC) is the home of the Government Department's microcomputer lab and Harvard's primary computerized social science data and codebook archive. Since the director of the GDC is a member of the Government Department faculty, the associate director is the top staff position at the GDC and is highly visible within the Harvard community. The occupant of this position provides technical advice and guidance to faculty, staff, and students on computational problems related to coursework, research, and administration. Serves as consultant to other related social science departments, and acts as the department's liaison with other departments and units of the University on computer-related issues. Supervises the acquisition and cataloging of data sets and codebooks, and assists in developing and implementing the GDC's financial and other policies. With his or her staff, the associate director has considerable flexibility. Depending on skills and interests, the associate director is welcome to choose special projects to work on; these might include: writing computer-aided instruction software, automating GDC operations, teaching mini-courses on computer software and hardware, assisting instructors in classroom teaching related to computers, or writing documentation. Other ideas and special projects may be developed by the new associate director.

Bachelor's degree required; advanced degree preferred. Applicants should have working knowledge of IBM microcomputers and associated software. Experience with word processing and statistical software is preferred. Familiarity with one or more programming languages (BASIC, Fortran, Pascal, etc.) and mainframe operating systems are helpful. Verbal, administrative, and interpersonal skills are essential.

Salary may be in low to high \$30's, depending on qualifications. Interviews begin immediately. Please send a vitae with references as soon as possible to:

Professor Gary King Department of Government Harvard University Littauer Center M37 Cambridge, MA 02138

Phone: 617-495-2027 BITNET: gmkHarvunxw Internet: gmkWjh12.harvard.edu

UUCPnet: gmkWjh12

Course offering: Management of computer-readable files

The University of British Columbia School of Library, Archival and Information Studies is offering the following Extra Sessional course in the Summer Session. Registration is from March 12 - June 28.

Course: LIBR 651B - Management of computer-readable files

Instructor: Laine G.M. Ruus

Objectives: to acquire a basic working knowledge of how data are stored in computer-readable

form, and how data should be stored,

to acquire experience with the management, documentation and description of data

in computer-readable form,

to acquire an appreciation of how data are used, to gain an appreciation of the technical and ethical problems surrounding the long-term storage and dissemination

of data files

Content: major sources of data files

'dirty data'

physical storage media access versus acquisition file structures and documentation

elementary statistical analysis ethical considerations: citation, copyright, etc.

institutional structures

Basic readings: students are expected to select their own reading material from an on-line SPIRES

database

Method: in addition to lecture material, students will be assigned a data file which they will

take through standard processing steps, generate appropriate documentation and

cataloguing records, and finally do basic statistical analysis

Prerequisite: none

Evaluation: will be based on hands on work with an assigned data file and a take-home

examination

Course credit: 1.5 units.

For further information, contact:

School of Library, Archival and Information Studies

University of British Columbia

2075 Wesbrook Mall Vancouver, B.C. V6T 1W5

Phone: (604) 228-2404.

University of Alberta

Summer Institute on the Quantitative Analysis of Social Data June 20 - 30, 1988

Level I - Beginning Statistics

- basic descriptive statistics
- statistical inference
- regression analysis

Harvey Krahn University of Alberta

Level II - Applied Regression Analysis

- build and test linear models
- interpret regression diagnostics
- logit analysis

Bob Arnold Queen's University

Joint Sessions

Data Analysis Workshop

- discussion of data analysis problems
- stages of survey data analysis
- data interpretation

Bill Avison University of Western Ontario

Computing & Data Analysis

- preparing data for statistical packages
- using packages to clean data
- labs using SPSSx and SAS

Chuck Humphrey & Wayne Watson University of Alberta

Sponsors: Computing Services and the Population Research Laboratory

Cost: \$650 per person (includes tuition, course materials and computing time)

Further information: write Ilze Hobin, Department of Sociology, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta T6G 2H4 or phone (403) 432-4659.

IASSIST88

PRELIMINARY PROGRAM

IASSIST '88
Public Data: Use it or Lose it
Thursday, May 26, to Sunday, May 29, 1988
Dupont Plaza Hotel
Washington, DC
USA

WEDNESDAY

4:00 p.m. to 8:00 p.m. REGISTRATION

DuPont Plaza Hotel, IASSIST Headquarters Suite

THURSDAY, MAY 26

8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. REGISTRATION Lobby, DuPont Plaza Hotel

Morning sessions, 8:30 a.m. to 12:15 p.m.

Plenary session

Session 1: View from the National Statistical Agencies

Judith Rowe, Princeton University, Chair

William P. Butz, Associate Director, Demographic Fields Area, U.S. Bureau of the Census

Denis Desjardins, Director General, Marketing and Information Services, Statistics Canada

Edmund Rapaport, Assistant Director, Statistics Sweden

Concurrent Sessions

Session 2-A: The Preservation and Use of Empirical Economic Research Data Dan Newlon, National Science Foundation Carolyn Geda, ICPSR

Session 2-B: Educating the Data User: The Role of Bibliographic Instruction

Bliss B. Siman, Baruch College, City University of New York, Chair Rona Ostrow, Baruch College, City University of New York Kristin McDonough, Baruch College, City University of New York Eleanor Langstaff, Baruch College, City University of New York Bobbie Pollard, Baruch College, City University of New York Ida Lowe, Baruch College, City University of New York

Session 2-C: Digital Cartographic Data

Randle W. Olsen, US Geological Survey

Robert LaMacchia, Bureau of the Census, "TIGER Files:

Digital Cartography for the 1990 Census."

Afternoon Concurrent sessions, 1:30 p.m. to 5:00 Session 3-A: Data Analysis Using Microcomputers

5-A: Data Analysis Using Microcomputers

Dianne Crispell, American Demographics Magazine,

"The Use of Microcomputers for Demographic Analysis:

An Overview of Options for the Novice User."

Ari Silva and Arthur Conning, UN Latin American

Demographic Centre (Santiago, Chile), "Small-area

Census Data Service by Microcomputer: Application of

the REDATAM System in Latin America and the Caribbean."

Charles Post, Mathematica Policy Research,

"The SIPP Electronic Codebook."

S. W. Weisman, National Technical Information Service,
"Data Dissemination on Diskettes."

Session 3-B: Democratization of Data

John Gales, John Gales Associates

Betty Steiger, Information Resources Management Associates

Jack Taub. National Information Utilities

Session 3-C: Consumer Expenditure Survey

Eva Jacobs, Bureau of Labor Statistics

Stephanie Shipp, Bureau of Labor Statistics

Session 4-A: Storage Technology for Data Archives

Margaret O. Adams, National Archives and Records Administration, Chair

S. Nazim Ali, Bahrain University, "Use of CD-ROM in a

University Library."

Laura Guy and Pat Wenzel, University of Wisconsin,

"Data Storage on CD WORM."

S. Pal Asija, Attorney and Engineer, Shelton, Connecticut,

"Handwritten Data Input, Storage Output, and Recognition System."

Session 4-B: Issues in the Integration of Machine-Readable

Records into Traditional Library Service

Jaia Barrett, Association of Research Libraries, chair

Kathleen Heim, Louisiana State University

Karin Wittenborg, University of California at Los Angeles

Donald Treiman, University of California at Los Angeles

Raymond Carpenter, University of Nort Carolina at Chapel Hill

Session 4-C: Statistical Use of Administrative Records

Robert Dalrymple, U.S. Food and Nutrition Service

Carole Trippe, Mathematica Policy Research, Inc.

Michael Strudler and Peter Sailor, Internal Revenue Service

RECEPTION -- NATIONAL ARCHIVES, 5:30 p.m. - 7:30 p.m.

FRIDAY, MAY 27

8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.

REGISTRATION

Lobby, DuPont Plaza Hotel

Morning sessions, 9:00 a.m. to 12:00 noon

Plenary session

Session 5: Professionalism and Professional Standards in the

Information Age

Constance Citro, Committee on National Statistics,

National Research Council, Chair and Moderator

Barbara Bailer, President, American Statistical Association

Frank B. Evans, President-elect, Society of American Archivists

Concurrent Sessions

Session 6-A: The Development and Management of Data Archives

Daniel C. Tsang, University of California - Irvine,

"Collection Development Policies for Machine-Readable Data Files."

Rudolph Bell, Rutgers University, "Medieval and Early

Modern Data Bank."

Wong Poh Kam, Seres Sdn. Bhd. "Collection,

Dissemination, and Preservation of New Science Data in Malaysia."

Martin Pawlocki and Elizabeth Stephenson, University of California

at Los Angeles, "A Microcomputer Based Tape Information System."

Session 6-B: Data Management Technology

Derek Ballantyne, National Archives of Canada,

"Using a Local Area Network as a Front End for Data

Processing in an Archives."

Donald P. Trees, Viar & Company,

"A Generalized Approach to Data Quality Assurance and Control

of Large Complex Data Structures Using SAS."

David L. Sallach, University of Arkansas,

"Knowledge Interchange Standards and th4e RM/T Model."

Session 6-C: Cross-National Social Surveys

Roger Jones, Australian National University, Moderator/Convenor

Speakers will discuss content and archival administration of the

European Values Survey, the International Social Survey Project, the Class Structure and Class Consciousness survey, and other similar surveys.

ROUNDTABLE LUNCHES: 12:00 noon - 1:30 p.m.

Complex Data Sets - How to Make Them Friendly and usable

- Convenor: Michal Peleg

Archival Appraisal of Machine-Readable Statistical Files

- Convenor: Michael L. Miller, National Archives

and Records Administration

Archival Tools — Convenors: Jacqueline McGee, The Rand Corporation

Complex Data Sets — Convenors: Pat Doyle, Mathematica Policy Research

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and David McMillan, Bureau of the Census

Afternoon sessions 1:30 p.m. - 5:00 p.m.

Session 7-A, 8-A: Techniques and Tools of Microsimulation

William Bradley, Health and Welfare Canada, Chair

Steven Caldwell, Cornell University

Steve Gribble, Statistics Canada

Sharon Hirabayshi, Mathematica Policy Research, Inc.

Richard J. Morrison, Health and Welfare Canada

Randall Webb, Urban Institute

Bruce Winer, Carlton University

Michael Wolfson, Statistics Canada

Session 7-B: On-line Catalogues With Records of Computer Data Files

Lynn Marko, University of Michigan,

"Generalizing Access to Statistical Research Materials."

Ted Brandhorst, Director, ERIC Facility,

"Access to Description of Education-Related Machine-Readable Data Files Via the Bibliographic Data Base of the ERIC System."

Ed Hanis, Tycho Research, Associates,

"CULDAT: The Canadian Union List of Machine Readable Data Files"

Session 7-C: Editing Strategies

Kay Worrell, Conference Board, Chair

Speakers will discuss alternative strategies for editing survey and administrative data. Of interest is the effect of program or policy objectives on the choices for editing

incomplete and inconsistent data. Session 8-B: Issues in Data Dissemination

Katharine Sue Gavrel, National Archives of Canada, Chair

E. Walter Terry, Florida State University, "Adopting a

Standard for Compression of Public Use Demographic Data."

Edie Hedlin, National Archives and Records

Administration, "New Regulations on Access to Highly

Personal Information for Statistical Research."

Session 8-C: Mapping as a Data Dissemination Technique

Michal Peleg, Social Science Data Archive, Hebrew University of Jerusalem,

"Presenting Spatial Data - The Statistical Map as a New Practice."

Alan Fox, Chadwyck-Healey, Inc.,

"Supermap: Revolutionizing the Way to Access and Manipulate Demographic Data."

SATURDAY, MAY 28

8:30 a.m. to 11:30 p.m.

REGISTRATION

Lobby, DuPont Plaza Hotel

Plenary session, 9:00 - 11:30

Session 9: Beyond the Social Science Data Archives

Hans Jorgen Marker, Danish Data Archives,

"History and the Data Archives."

Jake Th. V. Knoppers, Canadian Workplace Automation Research Center.

"The Archival Implications of Electronic Document/Data Interchange."

David Bearman, Archives and Museum Informatics,

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"Collecting Software: A New Challenge for Archives and Museums."
Erwin Scheuch, University of Cologne Institute for Applied Social Research,
"Data as Part of a Social Science Infrastructure."

Felix Krayeski, Congressional Research Service,

"Storage and Dissemination Technology for Data Archives."

Lunch and Business Meeting, 11:30 a.m. - 1:30 p.m.

1:30 p.m. - 5:00 p.m. WORKSHOPS

(Requires separate registration)

Session 22: Interchange Standards (tentative)

Organizer: Ted Weir, National Archives and Records Administration

Session 23: Data Products From the Bureau of the Census:

1990 Decennial Data, Economic Census Data, Foreign Trade Data

Organizer: Barbara Aldrich, Bureau of the Census

Session 24: The Data Archive on Adolescent Pregnancy and Pregnancy Prevention

Organizer: J. J. Card, Sociometrics Corporation

SUNDAY, MAY 29

9:30 a.m. - 12:30 p.m. WORKSHOPS

(Requires separate registration)

Session 25: Integrating Machine-Readable Records into

Traditional Library Services Organizer: Elizabeth Stephenson, University of

California at Los Angeles Session 26: Special Aspects of the National Logitudinal Surveys of Youth:

Session 26: Special Aspects of the National Logitudinal Surveys of Youth:

Focus on the NLSY Child-Mother Data

Organizer: Paula C. Baker, Center for Human Resource Research, The Ohio State University



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Key Title: Newsletter - International Association for Social Science Information Service and Technology

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